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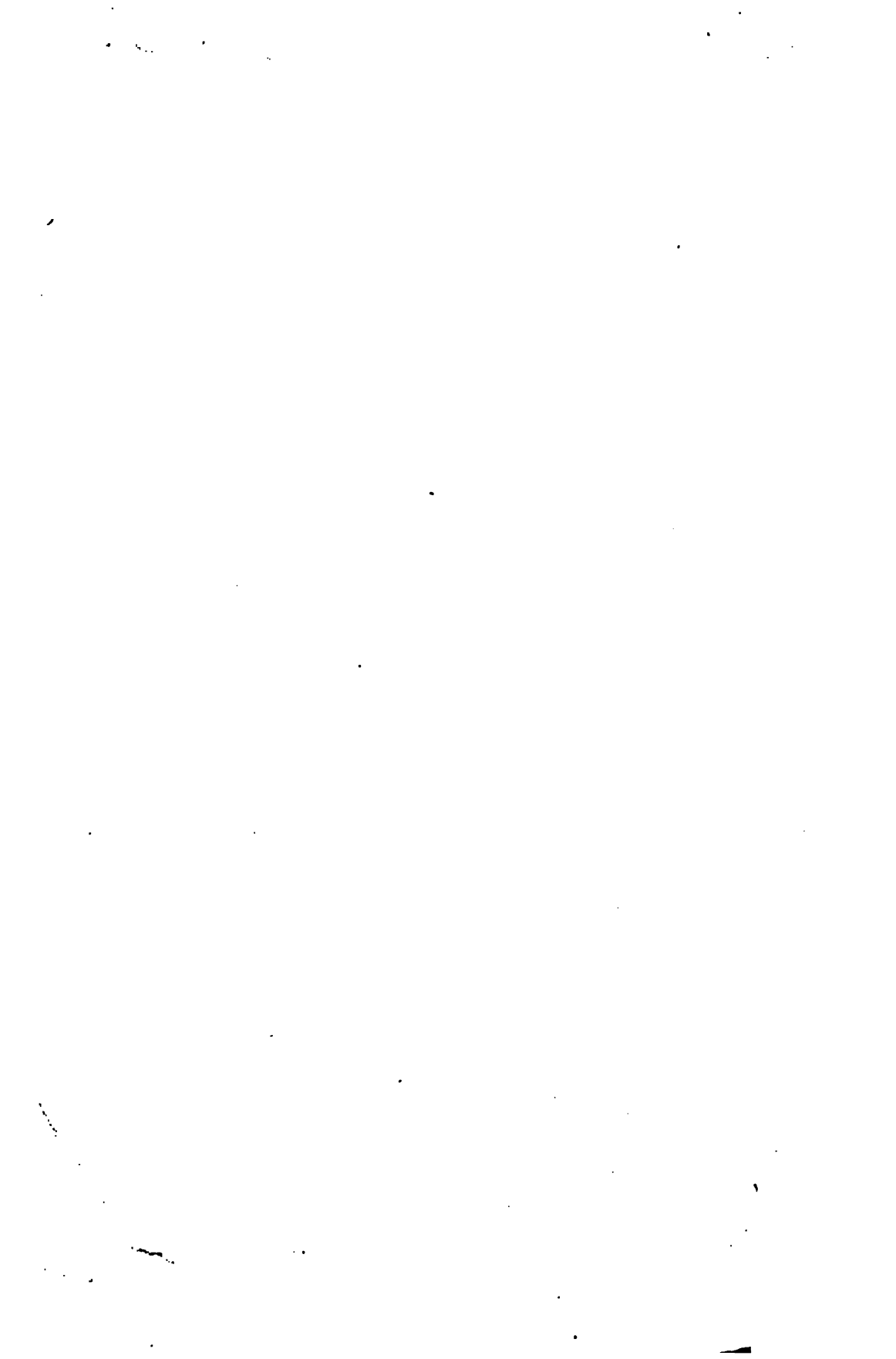
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THE WORLD TO-DAY

A MONTHLY RECORD
OF HUMAN PROGRESS

Containing the Latest Information on

HISTORY

POLITICS

SCIENCE

INDUSTRY

PHILOSOPHY

RELIGION

LITERATURE

EDUCATION

LEGISLATION

ART, Etc.

Volume XIV

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1908

УВАЖЛИ
ГОСПОДИН ОБОЖАТЕЛЬСКИЙ
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The World To-Day

VOLUME XIV

JANUARY, 1908

NUMBER 1

Reform in Overdoses

HAPPY is the man whose system can absorb the accumulation of cures which friendship dictates he shall take. Unrestricted by any diagnosis, we give headache powders for stomach complaints and lame-back remedies for toothache. Thin men adopt the regimen of fat men, and men with heart disease take acetanilid.

Why not? Each remedy has cured somebody!

* * *

Of late we have turned doctors of things financial. A few months ago we were all curing graft; and now it is financial stringency. No man of us is so poor as not to have some panacea.

In fact, we are in danger of being overdosed.

Perhaps that is the trouble with us, anyway. The after effects of some remedies are worse than the diseases they cure.

For the past year or two the country has been given rather a drastic treatment in the interest of reform. From the grocery-store philosopher to the president of a woman's club, from the space-writer to the President of the United States, everybody has been prescribing for his or her country.

Just as old maids and unmarried ministers teach parents how to bring up children, men on salary and women on committees have instructed the country in the management of railroads and the control of corporations. Men who never could escape last month's butcher bills have reorganized (in magazines) the stock market, and men who forget the dates of primaries have told us how to keep rascals out of office.

If we have not quite emulated the citizens of that happy island who make their living by taking in each other's washing, we have attempted to reform everything we could lay our hands on.

* * *

But now we face another side of the matter. We are in danger of taking an overdose of antidote for an overdose of cure.

If we need to guard against the amateur physician, even more do we need to guard against the ugliness of an unwilling convalescent.

Suppose we admit that the present financial situation is in some degree due to the excessive zeal of reformers. Shall we then throw reform out of the window?

* * *

Is it true that men will not invest in stocks because of the agitation against corporations?

Or is it true that now that we know how our Napoleons of finance pyramid their investments, reorganize their railroads, pocket the proceeds of stock issues, and make runs on trust companies to put rivals out of business, we prefer to put our money into farms?

* * *

Reforms can not be undone by attacking reformers. That is only to deepen the plain citizen's suspicion of the belligerents.

A farmer who can now-a-days afford to take his family on a visit to his brother-in-law is not likely to be very sympathetic when a railroad complains of the injustice of rate legislation. The wholesaler in the small town, who, because of reduced freight rates, finds himself no longer at a disadvantage in competing with the wholesaler in the metropolis, is not apt to look with much suspicion upon an Interstate Commerce Commission. And the nation that is getting the benefit of genuine enforcement of law is not likely to join in the lamentation of those who have been forced to abandon illegal practices.

* * *

We are learning something else besides the need of discounting the enthusiasm of reformers. We have been taught the advantages of reform.

The love of fair play guarantees that the effect of an overdose will be rectified. Self-interest should lead men who are exploiting the present unreasonable financial crisis in the interest of reaction to see that their criticisms will be taken for symptoms requiring still further treatment.

We expect convalescents to be cross, but when they try to kill their doctors we put them into strait-jackets.

EVENTS OF THE MONTH

Foreign Affairs

The treaty annexing the Congo Independent State to Belgium was signed on November 28 by the plenipotentiaries of both the parties involved. By it the sovereignty of all the territories of the Congo Independent State is ceded by King Leopold, and this includes his private domain therein, which, it has been supposed, he would retain under his own control. Belgium agrees to recognize the rights of all foreign companies established in the Congo, and assumes all the liabilities and financial engagements of the state. Its assets are set down at \$24,000,000 and its liabilities at \$23,000,000. The date for the assumption of sovereignty by Belgium is to be fixed by royal decree, but that country is to be answerable for the financial administration of the state from January 1, 1908. As stated by Premier de Roos, the revenues of the crown domain are to be employed in public benefits both for the Congo and Belgium, in the establishment of hospitals, schools and churches.

The strong feeling aroused in Germany by the recent revelations of scandalous proceedings in high circles Chancellor Von Buelow and the Reichstag has caused hot debates in the reichstag. When the government budget was presented, revealing an increasing deficit and asking for heavier taxation for the strengthening of the navy, a new situation developed. The Socialist, Herr Bebel, improved the occasion by calling attention to the high prices for provisions prevailing and the large number of unemployed in Berlin. He stated that there were already between thirty thousand and forty thousand of the latter, and that, according to the official count, 4,841 school-children had no

dinner. The strength of the opposition and the wavering loyalty of the National Liberals, who criticized the government's financial measures, threatened a ministerial crisis. Chancellor von Buelow checked his opponents by a move practically revolutionary in German governmental methods. He called together leaders of the Conservatives, National Liberals, Radicals and Agrarians, and informed them that he would ask the emperor for leave to retire unless he could rely for a majority upon the coalition. He asked them to confer with their followers and then inform him as to the prospect for unity. The resulting vote of confidence precipitated a stormy session the following day, for the announcement was greeted with derisive laughter and hooting by the Clericalists and Socialists. The confusion became so great that the president was unable to restore order. The Socialists asserted that the rights of the minority had been overridden, it being evident that there was a prearrangement as to who should speak. The leaders of the "bloc" moved the closure. Dr. Bethmann-Hollweg, minister of the interior, attempted to speak, but he and others failed to get a hearing, and the session was adjourned. The action of the chancellor practically establishes the responsibility of the ministry to the reichstag instead of to the emperor.

Sincerely mourned by the nation, Oscar II. of Sweden died on December 8, after a long and useful reign. He was the fourth ruler of the house of Bernadotte on the Swedish throne, which he ascended on September 18, 1872. He has governed with moderation and justice, and has left a good record in the hearts of his people,

DOUMA I. DOUMA II. DOUMA III.
 "Small by degrees and beautifully less"
 —*Alfred* (Paris)

Although the composition of the third douma is decidedly conservative and representative of the aristocrats and the supporters of the government rather than the large body of the nation, yet its initial action indicates a point of progress. In the preparation of a reply to the address from the throne, the Octoberists joined the Constitutional Democrats in opposing any recognition of the autocratic power of the emperor. After a stirring debate which lasted until midnight, the use of the word "autocrat" was rejected by a vote of 112 to 246. Mr. Guchkov, leader of the Octoberists, stated it as the opinion of his party that the emperor voluntarily resigned his autocratic power in his manifesto of October, 1905. Professor Milyoukov, as leader of the Constitutional Democrats, who had stood for the use of the word "constitutional" as representing the pledged status of the government of Russia, achieved a victory in proposing a compromise by which both this word and that of "autocrat" should be omitted from the reply to the throne. The Monarchists, of course, opposed the action, but seeing they were in the minority, fifty of their number withdrew from the chamber. Their leader, Mr. Purishkevitch, claimed that the autocracy of the emperor had been proven in his reconstitution of the third douma. There was doubtless truth in his statement. Premier Stolypin, in addressing the douma, a day or two later, maintained that while the emperor had frequently shown "how highly he prized the basic principles of the new régime of representative government within the limits established by him-

self, nevertheless the historic autocratic power and the unhampered will of the monarch shine out as the dearest possessions of the Russian royal family. Solely by this power and this will, . . . can Russia be saved in an era of danger and demoralization, and brought to the path of order and historical truth." He stated that as soon as normal conditions were restored the government would devote its attention to the internal development of the empire and the solution of the agrarian problem.

The foreign board of the Moroccan Government has yielded in the matter of the reforms demanded by the French and Spanish diplomats sent to negotiate with it. Agreement has been made to the immediate inauguration of the international police force; to the construction of a sewerage system at Tangier at once, and at other ports later; and to the application of Article Sixty of the Algeciras pact regarding the acquisition of property by Europeans. The tax on merchandise in transit through Tangier is to be abolished, and the question as to contraband of war was settled. The diplomats doubtless considered their mission successful, but in the present disturbed state of Morocco it is doubtful how far it will be possible to carry out the agreements made. Frequent reports have come during the past weeks, of attacks made by the Moorish tribesmen upon French troops. One of the latest developments was a raid into Algeria. Crops and buildings were burned and the city of Nemours threatened. The French finally succeeded in driving the tribesmen back.

"Now remember, boys, no rough house"
 Donahy in the Cleveland Plain Dealer

The American playwright
moment stands out in bold

Drama the season
Worth and une
While remarkable

by Americans show that it is slowly rising from its degradation. Augustus Thomas, having been supposedly to obscurity after a silence of several seasons, has stepped again into the limelight with the finest work of his career, namely, "The Witching Hour." Dealing with the question of mental telepathy and its mystic power, and fashioned with situations of tense dramatic beauty, it is a play which is superior to a question of nationality, and is a representative work of the era. That master craftsman, David Belasco, has chosen the son of his former great collaborator, De Mille, to assist him in devising a romantic drama of southern life, "The Warrens of Virginia." It is a faithful picture of our most charming aristocracy. It is the first admirable drama of southern manners which has not disclosed the Rebellion as its *raison d'être*. The clash between puritanic training and the primitive instincts of the frontier, so capitally presented by William Vaughn Moody in "The Great Divide," has gained added distinction for the play on its road tour this season. Everywhere it has duplicated its unqualified metropolitan success. It is evidently an ideal vehicle for Margaret Anglin. A new work by Rachel Crothers, who sprang into sudden fame last season with a delightful drama of western types, has failed to win approval. In "The Coming of Mrs. Patrick" she has overestimated the drawing power of hypochondria and the disease of self. The play has already been relegated to the storehouse. Of more gracious timbre and a sweeter theme is "Dr. Wake's Patient." This, however, is the joint work of two hitherto unknown English playwrights. Its charm and its potency lie in the fact of its simplicity, unencumbered as it is by problems, and dealing naively with the honest love of a man for a woman whom he views as his superior. This revival of homespun virtues in a play has first shocked, then pleased and finally won the tired playgoer. It will mark the momentary

our new dramatic system
Stage peramental

has chosen them as the pri
of her art. She alone seems
the soul and the eerie love
the mere lines, the bold sweep of action,
and the big, primitive characters. She
has become the chief disciple of Yeats in
America. She was the pioneer producer,
and it is her wish to make Yeats as widely
read and understood as Ibsen. Regular
nightly performances of "The Hour
Glass" and "Kathleen Ni Hoolihan" are
being given to large audiences. It is the
first time that the poetically beautiful
plays of Yeats have met with any encour-
agement on the part of the general public.

The midwinter season must necessarily
have its run of grand opera. The Man-
hattan and the Metropol-
itan grand opera compa-
nies, under the direction,

Grand
Opera

respectively, are pitte
producing. Its
pieces with th
on the globe.
ists America
this rivalry.
nini, Dalmores
Mary Garden
Mme. de Cise
few of the a
world of Eur
ing an ovatio
satisfaction to

A striving for the acme of art along
unconventional lines seems to be the in-
tention of Arnold Daly in
establishing an American
imitation of the far
Theater Antoine. Only one-act plays
produced. They must have indisput
dramatic worth. The market is not o

Arnold
Daly's
Experiment

Mary," in which the eccentric comedienne, May Robson, is being presented as a star for the first time. It reveals the undignified progress of a prim old maid acquiring the habits and manners of the gilded world. It is a financial success, and contains many scenes which compel laughter, but its value as a play is nil.

That musical comedy, the lowest form of entertainment in the legitimate theater, may be fashioned on rare occasion with consummate skill, has been proven by the international success of "The Merry Widow," by Franz Lehar. It is an operetta which sent Vienna waltz-mad over night, and took by storm every

metropolis in Europe. The story is clear and forceful, the characters natural, the humor spontaneous and original, and the music tuneful, original and seductive beyond measure. The waltz music which has made this operetta famous is insinuated into every scene in lilting, almost hypnotic strains. It is the waltz alone which one remembers, for it eclipses all else and has eclipsed the whole modern operatic field. It is a rare moment when the musical world may realize a masterpiece. Two other musical comedies, "The Hoyden," adapted from the French, and "Tom Jones," borrowed with reserve and prudence from Fielding's novel, have met with favor. Neither, however, rises for a moment above the commonplace.

Amateur Sport

The football season closed with the Army and Navy game on Thanksgiving Day, the university season both east and west having closed the preceding Saturday. As far as the East is concerned the question of the supremacy of the various elevens is not difficult to settle. By defeating Princeton 12 to 10, Yale demonstrated its superiority over all other teams in the East, and its subsequent defeat of Harvard was a foregone conclusion. At the same time it must be said that Princeton also possessed a strong team, as did Dartmouth and Cornell. The Harvard system of coaching may have laid the foundation for a better team in the future. It is probably true that Harvard played its best game against Yale.

The superiority of eastern over western football was indicated by the defeat of Michigan by Pennsylvania. The latter finished a very successful season by this victory. The athletic situation at Michigan has been so anomalous as to be anarchic. Although still a member of the Conference, Michigan has not played with any of the Conference teams, and has defied Conference rules. It is impossible to state, therefore, what its real rank would be in the West. It is probable, however, that it would be about on an equality with Chicago. The latter

team, though thoroughly outclassed and defeated (18 to 4) by the professional Indian team, is undoubtedly the leader among those teams which played according to Conference rules, having defeated Illinois, Indiana, Purdue and Minnesota. The last-named team is probably to be classed as second to Chicago. Wisconsin has pluckily shown ability to reform athletics and to develop a team. It is to be congratulated that its regents have not, like those of Michigan, surrendered to the students and checked the course of reform.

Among the Conference colleges in the Middle West there is a determined movement toward modifying some of the reform legislation of the last two years. This is notably seen in the effort to raise the number of games from five to seven. Wisconsin and Chicago alone in the Conference seem determined to maintain the general *status quo* until athletics have been thoroughly adjusted to education as a whole. It is exceedingly difficult to get the alumni and the young gentlemen who write the sporting pages of the daily newspapers to understand that the real motives lying back of athletic reform are a genuine regard for education. As long as alumni look at their universities as primarily intended to furnish huge athletic spectacles, reform will be exceedingly difficult.

wise. Its moving spirit has always been that which is within the evangelical communities. As a matter of self-protection it has a right to assure itself that those who are responsible for its activities as a religious organization shall be those who are in sympathy with its past, and of that type of religious life which believes in aggressive programs. The convention further undertook to revise the definition of "evangelical" in such a way as to guarantee its being something more than a sectarian shibboleth. Beyond voting and officeholding in the actual working of an association, there is no distinction drawn between active and associate members, so far as privileges are concerned. The association certainly does not intend to become a censor of individual beliefs. It is among the most catholic and liberal of all religious organizations that are actually accomplishing something. The action of the convention in refusing to take a step which might in the long run force the association to become a merely philanthropic or social organization is no indication of religious bigotry.

The past month has seen a somewhat sensational agitation of alleged de-Christianizing of the public schools in the interests of Jews and those of no religious faith whatsoever. In Chicago the proposal to use a book of extracts from the Bible in the public schools has been defeated on the basis of sectarianism. In New York no small excitement was caused among church circles by the assertion that the school board was to prevent the use of any songs at Christmas time in which the word "Christ" was used, or any peculiar Christian belief was found mentioned. However unjustified the assertion may have been, the school board judged it necessary to deny its intention of such a de-Christianizing of the Christian festival, and the schools of New York will sing Christmas carols as of yore. There will always be a difference of opinion as to the advisability of introducing the Bible into the public schools. Such a measure is both championed and opposed by men who believe thoroughly in essential Christian teaching. It is to be borne in mind also that New York is rap-

idly becoming a Jewish city. Those who have recently fled to America to avoid persecution in so-called Christian countries are naturally sensitive as to any step that might look like propagandism. At the same time such an attitude of mind is hardly sufficient to warrant an official exclusion of conventional Christmas songs in the school. The public schools ought to recognize the right of every citizen in the matter of religion, but Christmas can hardly be called an agency of Christian propaganda. The general opinion of the country undoubtedly would be that the proposed — or supposedly proposed — action of the New York school authorities would have been a mistake, a piece of official quixotism like President Roosevelt's directions to cease printing the words "In God We Trust" on a new issue of coins.

Sensational misrepresentation of religious matters has never been more thoroughly exhibited than during the past month. One striking illustration was

the turn given the action of the school board of New York in relation to Christmas music, and the other is the misrepresentation of an editorial in *The Biblical World*, thanks to the zeal of a student reporter and the man who writes the headlines of a certain Chicago paper. According to these reports the instructors of the Divinity School of the University of Chicago deny immortality. Such a preposterous statement is only a part of what seems to be an ambition on the part of the press of Chicago to make a sensation out of anything that emanates from the university. As a matter of fact, so far from denying immortality, the article in question, which might have been read by any man who cared for the facts in the case, affirmed immortality, and attempted to show the truth that lay in the eschatological pictures of the New Testament. Religious affairs are always delicate matters to handle in print, but it should be a matter of universal regret that the religious world should allow itself to be misled by headlines which do not represent even the article printed beneath them. But unfortunately public opinion is too much formed by scareheads

Religion
in the
Public
Schools

period we have done more toward the establishment of a permanent and lasting prosperity and the consequent happiness of all the people than England has done in any twenty years of her imperialistic occupation of India, or that the Dutch have accomplished during all the generations they have been in Java. The fact that our general plan of procedure in the Philippines has been pronounced untried, visionary, or impossible, is no evidence that it is impracticable. The only thing for us to consider is, how the general policy is working out. In the face of what has been and is being accomplished we may dismiss all arguments against the Philippines as unworthy of consideration.

It is but natural that the cities, the

tongue, which enables them to speak a common language with those of their own blood who talk a different dialect, in whatever part of the islands they may find themselves. Over and above all, the children of the Filipino *tao*, or peasant, are learning better ideas of living and are sitting side by side with the children of the *ilustrisimos*, the ruling classes, to whom for centuries their forebears have bowed their heads in slavish obeisance.

Undoubtedly the most important work ever undertaken in the Philippines is the building of the railroads. The experiences of the men in charge of the construction work of these railroads, and of the Americans engaged in other enterprises, cast light upon both the nature of

NATIVES LOADING RAILS ON TRACK-LAYING CARS ON THE TEMPORARY WHARF IN CEBU

Filipino labor in construction work has given satisfaction to American employers

old established centers of European civilization in the Philippines, should be the first to respond to improved conditions. But even the remote country districts are becoming more prosperous, because the people are back on their farms, and the farmer is at liberty to work in the fields for himself and he may no longer be imprisoned or held in subjection to another for debt. His *carabao* or work oxen, which perished in the cattle plague following the war, are gradually being replaced, and his children are attending the American schools, learning the English

the people, the possibilities and probable destiny of the islands. While new problems are constantly presented in the building up of this new yet old country, still the apparently great obstacles, once regarded as insurmountable, prove to be but theories and shadows after all.

It has been often said that it is a great mistake to try to impose our form of government or our methods of work, which are the result of a thousand years of Anglo-Saxon development, upon a people thought to be congenitally rooted to a sort of feudal system. The assumption that

construction force of four thousand natives was organized, and within three months ninety thousand cubic yards of earth and thirty-five thousand yards of rock were being moved at a cost of only twelve and a half cents a cubic yard. Already short stretches, about forty miles, of road are in operation. One hundred miles of track will be soon laid. On

ward combined. In a thousand ways the city has been improved, so that to-day, while among the most modern cities of the Orient, Manila is undoubtedly the most attractive. One of the most interesting phases of the city has been the development of a large American suburb in which the dwellings are modeled partially upon American styles, with enough of local

A MANILA SUBURB LOOKING TOWARD THE CITY

Panay a twenty-mile section is about completed from Iloilo, the metropolis of the Southern Philippines, to Pototan in the interior north.

Cebu is the most densely populated of the Philippines, there being three hundred persons to the square mile, and transportation is badly needed. All the Visayas are wonderfully fertile, producing coffee, cocoa, hemp and sugar. Vast deposits of excellent steaming coal have been discovered on Cebu and will be reached by a spur of the railroad. Large deposits have also been found on Batan, Mindanao, and Pollilo Islands. Philippine coal is an excellent steaming coal, comparing favorably with the product of Japan or Australia, and it is now being used in the inter-island service. Gold has been discovered in three widely separated regions and on the island of Masbate; several gold dredgers costing \$110,000 each are in operation.

Americans who were in Manila in the "days of the Empire" would hardly recognize the city at the present time. The old moat of stagnant water around the walled city has been filled in. Where once stood a great swamp, there is now the Luneta, a beautiful park and boule-

architecture to render them both artistic and suited to Philippine conditions. Quite recently several reinforced concrete structures have been built in conformity with the Spanish Renaissance architecture.

That portion of Manila embraced in the old walled city is one of the most perfect examples of a fortified city of the seventeenth century. Its walls, battlements and churches would render a European city world-famous. The Augustinian church, the oldest in the islands, stands as it was completed in 1605, with its vault of huge stone and its enormous walls which for three hundred years have withstood the earthquakes.

One could profitably spend weeks in these old cathedrals, with their art treasures, gold plate, and objects of rare historical interest. And hardly less profitable is it to visit the magnificent homes of some of the old Spanish and Filipino families. But everywhere, whether one goes to the palaces of the rich, or the tenements — of which there are a very few — where live the poor, he will find the result of the American system of sanitation. The old rain-barrel which bred pestilence-carrying mosquitoes is gone; refuse and rubbish are nowhere to be

are met to best advantage by the stranger. The native people of the cities have taken readily to the charming social manners of the Spanish; they will keep up a rapid fire of light conversation, and entertain with music and unbounded hospitality. The social life, however, has not come exclusively from Spanish association; the social instinct is innate in the people, though the poor peasant classes are not gifted in its verbal expression.

Strangers in the Philippines sometimes regard with impatience the poor native who will sit for hours gazing idly into space. There is a supreme resignation in the poorer classes, to whom everything is inevitable. Once, the writer and a friend, A. D. Gibbs, of Manila, journeyed by night in the far interior toward a distant village. Our guide, a native, had been loaned us, as one who knew the way, by an old Swiss planter, a resident of thirty years. Continually we got off the track, and tangled up in the woods and bogs; we came back to the same hill and crossed the same river twice at the same place.

"Legaspi, I will kill you if you do not find the road," said Gibbs.

"Wait but a little moment, senor, I have never traveled this road in the night."

An hour's stumbling through the night and we are back at the river ford again. Legaspi approaches and kneels before the exasperated Gibbs.

"I am ready to be killed, senor," he says, "for I can not get away from this river crossing."

So we gave Legaspi a big, round dollar (*peso*) and told him to cheer up.

With plenty of good food and supervision a poor native like Legaspi makes an excellent and faithful workman. As an instance: Last Christmas the superintendent of one of the Manila sawmills was obliged to run day and night to meet orders. His Filipino operatives all worked on Christmas Day — and a church holiday possesses a special significance to the native — but the American foreman refused to work.

All the larger towns and cities in the Philippines show the result of American initiative. The local native mayors (*presidentes*) and councilmen are glad to adopt the suggestions of the constabulary officers, schoolteachers, army men, and

commercial men with whom they come into contact. Street lighting, grading, pure water, sanitation, improved school buildings, and a thousand and one features are being carried out in every sizable community in the islands. The governors of different provinces are doing great work, especially in the building of good roads. There are a number of regions where the roads are suitable to automobiles and, incidentally, there are a number of motor cars in the Philippines. The Insular Government has subsidized eleven different steamship routes, and calls are made regularly at sixty different ports in the islands. Many of their boats are modern steel vessels, equipped in first-class shape.

Perhaps the greatest benefit from the incoming American is the fact that he stimulates the native people to do things in our modern way and shows them how to do it. One firm sold almost half a million dollars' worth of farming machinery to native planters last year. The Filipino will not learn by precept; he must see the work done in order to do it himself.

The islands need initiative. Filipino capital is timid and hesitates to engage in new enterprises. Yet the islands afford great opportunity for manufacturing. About a million dollars' worth a month of goods that could be produced in the islands are imported. There is a great chance to harness mountain streams for electrical power; and a small number of high-pressure water wheels have already been introduced. There is a chance for rope factories, cotton factories, furniture factories, modern sawmilling plants, sugar factories. Most of the industries of the islands, at the present time, are household manufactures, and produce yarns and threads, hats, caps, lace, embroideries, mats, etc., in considerable quantities. There is an opportunity to make children's toys, glass and earthenware products, papers and soaps. Already the Philippines are beginning to produce farming implements.

All in all, our possession of the Philippines will not only prove of great permanent benefit to the people of the islands, as it has already proved an almost immediate benefit to them, but the Philippines have done much for this country in bringing us out into the world.

tinues by carriage road or granite steps, for the hotels of Grasse are perched, like mediæval castles, near the mountain's summit. One breathes a new atmosphere here; it is as though the invigorating mountain air had been sprayed with eau de cologne. The factories in the valley are continually distilling orange blossoms, for this flower is available at all seasons, and it is the petal of the bitter orange that yields this delicious fragrance. In early March we found spring well advanced, and mingled with the perfume of the blossoms of the bitter orange came the odor of almond blossoms, acacia and violet.

The town of Grasse proves to be as unique and picturesque as its industries. It seems to have remained uncorrupted by the gay social world below it, and the life of idle luxury in the hotels above. High stone buildings, yellowed with age, shadow the narrow streets where peasant women in caps linger and gossip, and the goat-herd urges his little flock before him.

There are many fountains, and at every widening of the stone-paved alleys a great basin cut in the solid granite overflows with water. Here the washerwomen gather; some are very diminutive, but they smile back at one with their sparkling black eyes as though this soaping and pounding of clothes and visiting with neighbors were a holiday pleasure and not a task.

In summer and at harvest time, the children, as well as the women, young and old, find a more delightful occupation in the fields. In peasant caps, or wide-brimmed hats, one sees them with baskets beside them gathering violets under the shade of the woodland trees, or out on the sunny terraces filling their aprons with tuberose or cassia buds. Such baskets full of flowers we saw brought in and heaped up on the floors before us, each short-stemmed blossom perfectly fresh and fragrant.

The process of manufacture is much the same for all perfumes except those made from rose or orange petals. Glass sheets, held by frames a few inches apart, are smeared rather thickly with lard, and between these sheets the freshly picked blossoms are scattered, touching the frames but not being pressed by them. In one day the oil of the flowers exudes,

and the lard absorbs the precious drops. Before the grease is fully saturated the flowers are changed many times, the number depending upon the amount of oil the flowers contain. If the flowers are plentiful they may be changed as often as every six hours, and in the case of jonquils thirty times; jasmine is usually changed eighty times before the layers of lard are entirely saturated.

We had before seen this affinity of things unlike. In the diamond mines of Kimberley the bits of garnet, quartz crystal, and diamond come tumbling out of the blue soil and are washed along until they come to the grease-covered plates, where the diamonds cling with as much tenacity as do the heavy drops of violet oil. The fragrance of the flowers and the sparkle of the diamond could not be so easily taken captive without the humble contribution to the world's industries offered, however unwillingly, by the animal called unclean.

When the lard has absorbed as much oil as possible from the flowers, it is melted and dissolved in purified alcohol made from grain. We watched the great oily drops which had combined with the alcohol slowly rise to the top of the large iron pot, floating there in yellowish and greenish globules. When this mixture is filtered, the concentrated extract may be redissolved in spirits, diluted, or mixed with other oils according to the strength or quality desired.

Attar of roses and *néroly*, the base of eau de cologne, are made by a different method. The perfume may be extracted by an ordinary process of distillation if a very even heat is maintained, but the usual method is the *bain-marie*. A large kettle of lard is immersed in a tub of water at the boiling point until the grease reaches a uniform temperature and is entirely melted. Into this warm lard the petals of orange blossoms or of roses are thrown. It is the bitter orange whose flowers are valued especially, and for attar of roses a pale red, intensely fragrant rose is most prized. The petals remain a day or less in this bath, and then the inodorous wilted flowers are removed and fresh ones submerged until the mixture attains the desired strength. The women beat the mixture into a cream and the *bain-marie* room looks much like cake-

making on a large scale. To bend over the different deep bowls is to inhale the concentrated fragrance of fields of roses and groves of oranges. After the pomade is made, the oil may be shipped in this state, or distilled and sold in its concentrated form as attar of roses or *néroly*, or diluted to the strength of "perfume" or *eau de cologne*.

Twenty thousand pounds of rose petals are required to make one pound of attar of roses, valued at about \$200. A thousand pounds approximately of the petals of the flower of the bitter orange are necessary to make a pound of *néroly*, valued at \$20 on an average.

When *néroly* is distilled the water is saved and served in the *cafés* to the initiated. We learned to sprinkle perfumery into our tea, and to enjoy eating and drinking flowers in every form, for in the *Confiserie* violets and rose petals are candied, and orange petals are transformed into *bonnons*, or the still more precious orange tea.

At the foot of the *Rue des Cordeliers* is the interesting *Confiserie*, where one may inspect the entire circuit of work-rooms and watch the preserving of fruits in every form. Here are made the ordinary jellies, jams and preserves; *compotes*, with the whole fruit in syrup; and candied fruit with either a glazed or crystallized coating of sugar.

The women sit near the windows with a truly tempting display of work before them. Transparent red cherries and strawberries are being sorted and packed in one room. In the next, violets are being dusted with a coating of finely powdered purple sugar as they come from their bath in hot syrup, prefatory to another glazing. Near the door the men are emptying baskets of perfect double-blue violets, short stemmed and fragrant, too lovely, it seems, to convert into even the daintiest morsel of food.

Hundreds of yellow porcelain bowls are piled in tiers in the larger rooms. It is the season for limes and little Mandarin oranges, and they are taking a two-months bath in syrups that are changing them into transparent green, red, and yellow globes. Old women sit near heaps of oranges, patiently pricking them with an orange-wood stiletto, which is necessary before immersing them in limewater.

In South Africa, where fruit is so abundant and delicious, the Dutch housewives have learned the secret of making these crystalline confections. They transform everything from green figs to turnips into a "confait" for which they are famous. But it takes the patience of the Dutch, or at least more patience than the ordinary American possesses, to change liquids and syrups the number of weeks necessary to perfect this transparent "sweet."

One may visit in Grasse only the confectioners and perfumers who have retail rooms and who conduct business on a somewhat limited scale. The largest factories are closely walled in; the *conciergerie* forbids entrance at the gate, for the important work within is not to be interrupted or disturbed. It is in these wholesale manufactories that the perfumes are made that supply the market of almost the entire world. London and Paris perfumers add their own labels to the extracts shipped from Grasse, diluting them, or making any combinations they choose.

One does not need to question for whom this refinement of luxury is being prepared. Purchasers from the gay Riviera resorts come to the factory doors, and carry away from the show-rooms quarts of perfume and pounds of candied fruits.

We watched the interesting procession as it passed in and out from motor cars and carriages to the reception rooms of the *Parfumerie*. Every language is spoken by the company of exquisite creatures in furs and soft chiffon veils, who pass along the tables to test the great bottles of perfume placed there, with atomizers attached, as samples of the dozens of different odors. The elegant rooms, with velvet curtains drawn, where a hundred electric lights add to the brilliancy of cut-glass bottles and sparkling liquids, is none too fine a setting for the wealth and beauty of the world that during the months we call winter, seek this azure side of the Mediterranean. The men contribute their part to the interesting scene by the unobtrusive and seemingly grateful part they play in being allowed to hand out many crumpled bills and to store away in the depths of the carriages perfumes, scented face pow-

ders, soaps and silk sachets. The day's shopping is completed when handsome baskets and boxes of glacé fruits from the Confiserie have been purchased.

After all, the path money travels from

the purses of the rich to the pockets of the poor is a fairly direct one. It is the life of luxury and its demands that make possible this prosperous peasantry of Grasse, with its picturesque life.

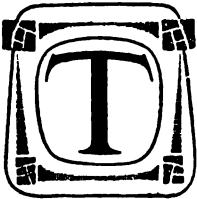
RECENT INSURANCE LEGISLATION

BY

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To insure one's life is the duty of every man, particularly of every man on a salary. This article by Professor Persons furnishes convincing proof that recent legislation has, on the whole, been in the interests of conservative management and lower premiums. The facts here presented make it evident that life insurance offers even stronger inducements to-day than ever before.



THE insurance legislation of New York, passed in accordance with the recommendations of the Armstrong committee, is a recognition of the truths:

(1) That life insurance is not in its nature similar to ordinary business to be exploited for profit. Strict government supervision is necessary to preserve mutuality and guarantee that the funds will be used as trust funds.

(2) That the insurance contract is so complex that it has not been purchased according to the rules of competitive business. The government must guarantee the insured a fair contract freed from technicalities.

Extent of the Legislation

The findings of the Armstrong committee have led to widespread, and, in some cases, unreasonable, insurance legislation during the past year. A committee of fifteen, acting for the National Conference of Governors, Attorneys-General and Insurance Commissioners, drew up an insurance code in November, 1906, which was recommended to the various states as a basis of legislation. The New York legislation was followed in the code with the exception of the provisions for the limitation of new business and ex-

penses, fixing standard provisions instead of standard policies, and allowing preliminary-term valuation.

Some states, such as California, Delaware, Illinois, Michigan, Minnesota and North Dakota, adopted most of the important recommendations of the committee of fifteen. Others, such as Colorado, Pennsylvania and West Virginia, passed legislation along the lines recommended, but followed the recommendations to a lesser degree than did the first group. Wisconsin, Iowa, New Jersey and Massachusetts have received reports from their own special insurance committees, while a committee is now at work in Ohio. Massachusetts has passed legislation allowing its savings banks to sell industrial insurance without the medium of soliciting agents, and a recess committee has been appointed to consider the advisability of granting state old-age pensions. The governor of Florida has twice recommended that the state sell insurance. New Jersey has given its governor power to appoint three directors on the board of any domestic stock insurance company. Iowa has passed a law requiring by 1912 all fraternal assessment insurance organizations to charge rates at least equal to those required by the mortality table recommended by the National Fraternity Congress, and all societies seeking licenses in Iowa or Wisconsin must charge rates

based on such mortality table. Wisconsin limits salaries of insurance officials of domestic companies to \$25,000 per year, prohibits officers and agents of any domestic company from promoting the election of any candidate for director, prohibits proxies and limits premiums that companies are allowed to charge. As a consequence some corporations are threatening to withdraw from the state. Texas has passed a law requiring life companies to invest three-fourths of their Texas reserves in that state, and as a consequence twenty-one companies have withdrawn. The retaliatory laws of many states complicate the situation still more. A bill has been before Congress providing extensive insurance regulation for the District of Columbia; a bill was introduced by Senator Dryden declaring insurance to be interstate commerce and providing for federal regulation.

Legislation and the Theory of Life Insurance

The insurance legislation that has been passed depends for its effectiveness on the closeness with which it adheres to the theory of life insurance. The reasons for the legislation can only be understood by considering it in connection with the life-insurance contract.

The rates at which most of the American old-line insurance companies sell insurance are based on the American Experience Table of Mortality. This table was derived from English mortality experience and has been adapted to American experience. The history of life-insurance companies for the past forty years has demonstrated that this table can be relied upon. The table gives the number of survivors at each age, starting with 100,000 at age ten. At age thirty-five the table gives 81,822 survivors; at age thirty-six, 81,090 survivors and ends at age ninety-five with three survivors, who die before reaching age ninety-six. Suppose that the obligation is taken by a company to insure each one of 81,822 individuals at age thirty-five against death occurring within one year, promising to pay \$1,000 to the beneficiary of each policy maturing by death. What liability is thus assumed by the company and what should each one of the insured pay for the benefit received?

According to the American experience

table, 732 of the 81,822 insured will die before reaching the age thirty-six. Basing our calculations on this table, the company will have to pay out \$732,000 in settling death claims during the year. We will assume that this amount will not be paid until the end of the year, which is the usual assumption of insurance companies. The present value of \$732,000 due one year hence, assuming that money can be invested at three per cent, is \$710,679. In order to pay the losses the company must collect from each one of the insured \$710,679 divided by 81,822, or \$8.68. This amount is called the *net premium*. It will cost something to collect the premiums, invest the funds, etc., in other words to administer the business. Suppose that we estimate this cost at twenty-five per cent of the net premium and add this charge or *loading* to the net premium, making the *gross premium* actually paid by the policyholder equal to \$10.85.

In computing the gross amount to be paid by the policyholder we have assumed three things: (1) that 732 deaths will occur, (2) that three per cent interest will be earned, and (3) that expenses will amount to one-fourth of the net premiums. These assumptions are conservative and it is probable that there will be gains from all of these items. If the contracts issued are *participating*, the policyholders are entitled to a refund of the excess or *surplus* portion of their premium contributions. What is the exact source of the surplus and how will this surplus be apportioned to the policyholders? For the year 1906 the Minnesota gain-and-loss exhibit showed that the mortality experience of forty-one companies was 76.37 per cent of that expected, the actual expense was 83.7 per cent of the total loading and the rate of interest earned was 128.5 per cent of the estimated rate. Assuming that the company with which we are dealing is a mutual company, that the policies are participating and that its experience is the same as the average of the forty-one companies, what dividends could be returned at the end of the year? The following statement gives the items entering

* Of course the mortality table, rate of interest and loading differ for the different companies appearing in the report.

into the surplus of the company after payment of all death claims:

GAINS DURING THE YEAR, BASED ON THE EXPERIENCE OF FORTY-ONE COMPANIES DURING 1906.

Saved 23.63 per cent of expected mortality (of \$732,000).....	\$172,971.60
Saved 16.3 per cent of total loading (of \$177,670)	28,960.21
Earned an interest rate 28.5 per cent greater than that estimated (of 21,321)	6,076.48
Total surplus	\$208,008.29

The *dividend* to each one of the 81,090 survivors would therefore be the above surplus of \$208,008.29 divided by 81,090, or \$2.565. It is evident that this "dividend" is simply a return premium, and that the company is enabled to return part of the premium paid in because it has collected more than necessary to carry the policy. The function of the life-insurance company is thus simply to collect small amounts from a large number of people and with the least possible expense pay the claims of the insured. The insurance company acts as a distributor of wealth and offers a means of placing wealth where it can be used to the greatest advantage, i. e., by the widows and orphans.

The cost of administration is levied upon the funds in transit from the premium payers to the beneficiaries of the insured. This cost may become so great that the benefits received by the beneficiaries are but a small fraction of the amounts paid in by the policyholders and the end of insurance is thus defeated. The legislation of the past year limiting salaries of officials, prohibiting political contributions, requiring annual accounting to policyholders, limiting expenses, etc., has been a recognition of the fact that insurance funds are trust funds and should be safeguarded where the interests of the officials and the interests of the policyholders come into conflict.

Legislation as to the Surplus

In a stock company the distribution of the surplus is determined by the stockholders. In the absence of special provision the stockholders are legally entitled to take the entire surplus in stock dividends and make no refund to the policyholders. A New Jersey stock company is now paying ten per cent divi-

dends, which is nearly 220 per cent on the original capital paid in.

Recognizing that stockholders are not likely to make an equitable distribution as between themselves and the policyholders, the New Jersey Legislature of 1907 has limited dividends to stockholders to ten per cent of the par value of their stock and provided for the distribution of the assets in the case of the dissolution of any New Jersey life-insurance company. Wisconsin found that, "where the interests of the policyholders and those of the stockholders came into conflict, the policyholders suffered," and now requires every stock company selling participating policies to determine and report the respective rights of policyholders and stockholders in the unassigned surplus before being licensed to do business in the state. The reasons for and the wisdom of these provisions are evident.

In case the company be a mutual company the policyholders are entitled to all of the surplus, and only enough should be retained by the company from year to year to constitute a factor of safety. In order to prevent the accumulation of an unnecessarily large amount at the expense of the policyholders, New York has limited the amount of the "contingency reserve" of domestic life-insurance corporations.

It was the surplus, swollen to an enormous extent by the contrivance of "deferred dividends," that placed immense amounts at the disposal of insurance officers. The agent suggested to the individual being solicited that if he would defer his dividends and leave the accumulated amount in the hands of the company he would receive much better results. The companies thus had at their disposal a growing fund for which they were not required to account either to the state departments or to the insured. If the insured lived to the end of the accounting period, he was promised the accumulated profits arising from the overpayments of the policyholders who had died before the end of the period. "The results have not justified the expectations. Estimates relied upon when the policies were issued have been falsified by the event," says the Armstrong report.

Probably the most general insurance legislation passed has been that prohibit-

ing the deferred-dividend contract. The deferred-dividend contract was justified by the companies on the ground that it would lead the insured to persist in maintaining his contract. This argument has been disproved by the investigations of the Wisconsin committee. That committee has obtained the following table from the experience of the Northwestern Life Insurance Company:

PER CENT OF ANNUAL DIVIDEND AND DEFERRED DIVIDEND POLICIES LAPSED FROM TIME OF ISSUE UNTIL 1905.

	Per cent of Annual Dividend Policies Lapsed	Per cent of Deferred Dividend Policies Lapsed
Issue of 1885.....	25.52	41.54
Issue of 1890.....	28.39	43.89
Issue of 1895.....	29.79	50.46
Issue of 1900.....	22.87	25.88

In every case the percentage of deferred-dividend policies lapsed exceeds the percentage of annual-dividend policies lapsed. Deferring dividends does not cause policyholders to persist in maintaining their policies.

Separating Non-Participation from Participation

Previous to the present year insurance companies issued both participating and non-participating contracts. The holder of the latter contract was not entitled to share in the surplus of the company. Consequently it was necessary for companies issuing such contracts to know exactly what the cost of the insurance would be in order to give a just rate. The Wisconsin investigation showed that non-participating policies have been issued at a loss and "the entire loss was borne by the present and past participating policyholders." The Armstrong committee concluded that, "In short, the non-participating policy issued by a company doing business upon the mutual plan can be justified only on the supposition that the exact results of the business can be foreseen and the premium adjusted accordingly. This of course is an impossibility." Provisions prohibiting the same company from writing both participating and non-participating contracts have been adopted generally.

Reserves

If at age thirty-six each of the 81,090 survivors in our illustration should renew his contract for one year, each would have to pay a gross premium of \$11.01. The

gross premium paid for this yearly renewal increases until at age fifty it would be \$16.73; at seventy-five it would be \$114.52, and at ninety-five the net premium would be \$970.87. The large premiums required of those at the higher ages on this plan become prohibitive. This is one of the reasons for the failure of so many assessment societies. There are sure to be numerous withdrawals as the annual assessment increases.

The *level premium*, or uniform payment each year, when computed on a correct basis, does away with the increasing burden. The annual level net premium for whole-life insurance at age thirty-five is \$21.08. The difference between this level net premium and the net premium for a single year's insurance at that age is \$12.40, which is the source of the *reserve*. Under a level premium policy these overpayments are accumulated at compound interest from year to year and constitute the legal reserve which the company is required to keep in order to maintain its solvency. The net rate that one would have to pay at age fifty-seven for a one year's contract would be \$20.70, and at age fifty-eight it would be \$22.26. Since the level rate of age thirty-five for whole-life insurance is \$21.08, it is evident that after age fifty-seven the reserves of the company must be drawn upon for payment of losses due to the deaths of those who were insured at age thirty-five. The reserve accumulated on a whole-life policy with annual level premiums taken out at age thirty-five will be \$146.01 at the end of ten years; \$522.92 at the end of thirty years, and \$949.79 at the end of sixty years. It is because fraternal insurance societies have charged rates insufficient to build up adequate reserves that so many failures have occurred among them. The Iowa law requiring fraternal societies to base their rates ultimately upon a standard mortality table is to be highly commended. It is because of their reserves that the old-line insurance companies are able to give a *surrender value* or *paid-up insurance* if a policy be lapsed.

Companies have contended, however, that it is not equitable to allow policyholders the full reserve as a surrender value of their policies because, (1) the more robust lives would tend to withdraw and, (2) a surrender charge will discour-

age surrenders and will recompense companies for the impaired lives remaining. Actuary M. M. Dawson has made a statistical study of this question and concludes: "There is no evidence of such a thing as adverse selection by discontinuance in any office which possesses the confidence of the public," and, "in times of financial crisis and stringency offices offering liberal cash value and loan privileges do not suffer more from withdrawals than do others, while they do receive the favor of the public in the purchase of new insurances." Relying upon these facts the Wisconsin Committee recommended that insurance companies be required to loan an amount up to ninety per cent of the full reserve of the policy on demand by the insured and to allow the full reserve as a surrender value upon one year's notice.

Limitation of Expenses

The Wisconsin committee found that the level premiums charged for like policies by different companies varies considerably, due to the different percentages used in loading. The percentages vary from twenty-five per cent for the more conservative companies to 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ per cent for the large New York companies. It was shown that "the average excess of highest loading over lowest loading on participating policies is: ordinary life, \$3.45; twenty-payment life, \$4.86; twenty-year endowment, \$5.97; ten-payment life, \$6.37; ten-year endowment, \$7.99." The average excess of the highest loading on the participating plan over the lowest loading on the non-participating plan amounts to nearly twice the above noted differences. The committee concludes that "the collection of high premiums with heavy expense loadings, with no guaranteed dividend returns to the insured, provides the means for and stimulates excessive expenditures for insurance management." The premiums charged are now limited by statute.

Insurance corporations doing business in New York are not allowed to spend for total expenses in securing new business "an amount exceeding in the aggregate the total loadings upon the premiums for the first year of insurance received in said calendar year and the present value of the assumed mortality gains for the first five years of insurance, as ascertained by

the select and ultimate method of valuation." "Mortality gains for the first five years of insurance" are due to the fact that insurance companies require the applicant for insurance to pass a physical examination. Ten thousand people chosen at random from the population will show a mortality closely approximating the predictions of the American Experience Table of Mortality, but if we select ten thousand by physical examination the mortality will be much less than that shown by the table and will range from 47.6 per cent of the table death rate in the first year of insurance to 75.2 per cent in the fifth year. After the fifth year the effects of selection are not apparent.

The "select and ultimate" method of valuation of the reserves allows the companies to assume a mortality during the first five years of a policy varying from fifty per cent of the standard death rate in the first year of the policy to ninety-five per cent of the standard in the fifth year of the policy. The reserves that are thus required during the first five years of any policy are reduced and the companies are allowed to spend not more than the amount thus released, in addition to the loading, in securing new business. This plan has been objected to as offering a chance for new companies to start on a basis that is not conservative. However, the experience upon which the plan is based is almost as extensive as that upon which the table itself is based and accords with the practice of well-managed companies.

Industrial Insurance

The Massachusetts legislation allowing savings banks to sell industrial insurance is intended to give the industrial classes an opportunity to buy insurance at the lowest possible cost. Any savings bank in Massachusetts can, by securing a guarantee fund of \$25,000, sell insurance in amounts of not over \$500 directly across the counter without the aid of agents. A state department will do the actuarial work for the insurance savings banks. The premiums are to be paid at places designated by the bank, or an insured depositor may order the bank to deduct his premiums, as they become due, from his savings account. The question, "Will the purchaser of industrial buy his insur-

ance in this way?" will have to be answered by experience.

An Illinois commission which was sent abroad to study the question of compulsory industrial insurance recently reported in favor of such insurance. The recommendation was not followed by legislation.

Although there has been considerable

unwise insurance legislation during the past year, yet the total results of the insurance upheaval are good. Knowledge of insurance has been extended, state departments have been more vigorous in the performance of their duties, and, above all, insurance officers have a better appreciation of their responsibility to the policyholders.

SPECULATION, LEGITIMATE AND ILLEGITIMATE

BY

A MEMBER OF THE CHICAGO STOCK EXCHANGE.

there such a thing as legitimate speculation? Such is the question put to me by the editor of *THE WORLD TO-DAY*. The question seems to me to be timely from almost any point of

view. In the present financial condition it is hard to draw a border line sharply between investment and speculation. But there is none the less a difference. In making an investment one looks particularly at security and the rate of return, not being much concerned with possible future price of whatever one may be purchasing. In speculation one looks primarily to possible changes in the price of the security purchased. For the ordinary man investment is by far the safer policy. But that is by no means the same as saying that speculation is always legitimate.

According to the dictionary, speculation is the purchase of lands, goods or securities with the expectation of an advance in price and the ability to sell at the enhanced value, in contradistinction to the ordinary purchase and sale of commodities as between grower and dealer, dealer and consumer, or manufacturer and jobber, jobber and wholesaler, wholesaler and retailer, and consumer. It may include selling with conditions providing for future delivery, anticipating repurchasing before the delivery date

at a less price. This question, however, I understand to be asked regarding speculation as the word is generally used, referring to transactions in commodities upon Boards of Trade or securities upon Stock Exchanges. But it is not necessary to go to the dictionary to learn that speculation is not confined to Boards of Trade or Stock Exchanges. The wholesale dry goods man buys his cotton goods, and for aught I know other things, at a time when he expects an advance in prices. The wholesale grocer likewise his sugar, canned goods, dried fruits; the wholesale hardware man his nails, barbed-wire, etc., and this list might be lengthened. There seems to be no question as to the legitimacy of this method of doing business when confined to commodities.

Let us take up the subject as related with the Stock Exchange. There was in attendance at one of the yacht races for the Lipton Cup some years ago a broker of New York who had as his guest an Englishman. As they stood on the deck of the visitor's steamer and watched the private yachts which were gathered in great numbers, the broker named to the Englishman the various owners thereof, and designated them as fellow brokers of the New York Stock Exchange. The Englishman was interested, and as his host finished, asked the pertinent question, "Where are the customers' yachts?"

This view of the contrast between broker and customer is quite generally

held, and it has been estimated that only one person in eight will find that speculation results profitably. It is, however, also estimated that the number of men who go through business life without a failure is probably not in much greater proportion. Even with the general conception of speculation and in face of the discouraging statistical position, I am convinced that speculation in securities may be carried on successfully and is as legitimate as the methods of mercantile business. This is not to say that *all* speculation is legitimate. The man who speculates by following a "tipster" is on the same plane as the man who bets on a horse race or plays the roulette wheel, and his operations will only result in disaster for himself and possibly others.

But if one will study the situation, investigate the conditions surrounding the particular item in which the speculation will be carried on, and not forget the general conditions of the country at large, his judgment will more often than otherwise lead him to profitable results.

For aid in this direction he must look to his broker, and the latter is often blamed for the disastrous results of speculation. This is unjust. While it may be conceded that here and there a broker's policy is to get business irrespective of the results attained by his clientèle, the majority of the fraternity do not regard it this way. The life of the business is to have the customers make money, for if they are on the losing side their ranks are very quickly thinned.

Speculation is almost always associated with margin trading. Here and there will be an investor with a speculative tendency who will pay for his stocks outright and put them away. This, all things considered, is the safest way. It compels one of small capital to make limited purchases, which is conducive to conservative transactions. The majority of operators, however, work on a margin. This manner of doing business amounts simply to this: The broker makes a loan to the customer of the amount necessary to pay for the security not covered by the margin deposited. Many a man who would not trade on a margin in a broker's office will make a loan with his bankers to take up the security. The two methods are, however, practically identical.

There are two duties which a broker must always keep in mind: to prevent his customer from speculating on too small a margin and, at times, to keep him out of the market entirely. It is customary under ordinary conditions to ask a margin of \$5 per share on stocks selling to say \$50 or \$60 per share; \$10 per share on those selling from \$50 to \$110, and from \$15 to \$25 per share on stocks selling above the latter figure, according to the character of the security. It would be better if these figures were doubled, not only as a matter of protection to the broker, but to the customer as well. For instance, a man buys 100 shares of stock and deposits \$5 per share margin. If the stock declines \$3 per share he is called upon by his broker for additional margin. This makes him nervous and his judgment is not as good. If he had deposited \$10 originally the decline of \$3 would not have resulted in a further call.

It is the tendency of most operators in making money to enlarge their operations and to keep at it all the time. This almost invariably results in a loss of good judgment and ultimate trouble. One of the most successful operators that I ever knew on the Board of Trade was a man who cleaned up his business every little while and remained away from the scene of action for weeks at a time. In the great rise in securities covering the period from 1898 to 1902 many men of comparatively small means started in a very moderate way in the early part of this movement and made large sums of money, and then correspondingly enlarged their operations. In the reaction of 1903 this class was largely wiped out, and it was a conspicuous feature of the rise in railroad and industrial securities from the early part of 1904 to 1907 that the small operators were not in the market. It is true that in the latter part of this period they turned their attention to copper stocks, the rise in which resulted in conditions similar to those existing in railroads and industrials from 1898 to 1902, and the decline of the last few months has brought a correspondingly disastrous result.

The same consideration given to speculation as to an ordinary business transaction of equal importance from a financial standpoint, the purchase of securities outright or upon a liberal margin, and a de-

termination to stop for the time, irrespective of the result, when the plans laid have been carried out, are features necessary to successful speculative operations.

Is the present a favorable time for speculation in securities? For what is termed a "long pull," yes. Manipulation which has been so marked a feature of the speculative market for the past three years, still continues and the financial strength of these operators is so great that the market may be moved up or down a considerable number of points even at times directly contrary to the general situation. I therefore believe that in the uncertainty which exists as to financial matters attempts at so-called "quick turns" in the market are not advisable. One can, however, easily discover high-grade railroad and industrial stocks which, even should these companies be forced by a reaction in mercantile business to reduce their dividends, would still bring a good return on the prices at which to-day they may be bought. With a presidential year ahead of us we can not expect much expansion,

but it is generally conceded that the fundamental conditions of the country are such that we are not apt to have a protracted period of depression. With fair crops in 1908 and the election out of the way, the country should rouse again to activity in commercial and manufacturing lines, under which condition, coupled with a normal money situation, much higher prices for securities will doubtless be seen.

It is unfortunate that the small investor is prohibited by the large denominations in which bonds are issued from being able at a time like this to participate in the good things in this line which are now on the bargain counter. While this article has considered chiefly speculation in stocks, it may not be out of place to call the attention of those whose means will permit to the bond market, which presents chances in a speculative way, together with unusually large returns, seldom found. This is true not only of Stock Exchange issues, but applies with equal force to corporate and municipal bonds.

EQUALITY

A SILHOUETTE OF LIFE

BY

MAURICE C. LIPMAN

IVE years ago Tonkus Gunakis was peacefully working on his father's strip of land near the tiny Lithuanian village of Swecksnia. Six days a week would see him out on the field at

early sunrise, and when the deep red sun had sunk in the west he might be seen coming back to the thatched cottage where his father and his father before him had lived their simple, peasant lives. On the seventh day Tonkus dressed in the checked Sunday suit, threw the shining boots over his shoulders and with trousers rolled up to the knees to protect them from the dusty road, he would trudge barefoot into town to church. A little dis-

tance from the town, however, he would stop to put on his boots and stockings, pull down his trousers, and tie the gaily colored kerchief about his neck in a jaunty bow, for one must make a decent appearance when one comes into church, and besides, perhaps little Barbe Gaucksis would be there.

And if fate was good and sent Barbe in her short, bright-colored dress, her flaxen hair and smiling eyes, why, then did the day pass swiftly, and all too soon did the homeward journey come to an end before the cottage of father Gaucksis.

It was not an easy, or plenteous life this that Tonkus led, for the interest on the mortgage held by the Graf was high and the yield of flax and flaxseed not always bounteous. But with all the hard-

ships, he was not unsatisfied with his lot. Indeed he knew no other and longed for no other. He had simple wants and they were satisfied in a simple way.

Then a letter came from his cousin Zunakis who had gone to America. Anton, the village scribe, was called upon to read the great letter. Tonkus and the rest of the little group gathered about the oracle, as he read. As the glowing terms with which the cousin described the new country were heard, the mouths of all were wide open with astonishment.

"*Bozhe moi*," cackled old Raukis, "did you hear it — every day they have meat! What! one could have it three times the day if one wished?"

"Sh — but listen only," whispered Nuspansi, "he says they work only from seven to six and for that they get twenty-five rubles the week. Blessed Saints! In six months one does not earn that here."

But what appealed to Tonkus most was that according to the words of his cousin, he was no more a *moujik* in that golden country but a *ponz*, and every one greeted one with respect.

From that time on Tonkus was dissatisfied and restless until two months later saw him embark in the steerage of the good ship Bismark bound for the shores of the golden land.

That was five years ago. Now you may see Tonkus any day at the foundry in South Chicago. He would probably be bare to his waist, and the sweat running down in furrows in the layer of grime that covers his face and body. His work consists in aiding to direct the immense kettles of molten iron to the proper forms. As may be imagined the atmosphere of the place is not of the purest nor of the most comfortable variety. The hot forges seem to Tonkus' simple mind like the eternal fires of which he has heard his parish priest speak. The other workers seem not unlike aides of Satan. Thus you may be sure that he draws a deep breath of satisfaction as he at length emerges from the mill and trudges heavy-footed to the place he calls home.

Not a very attractive place, his home with its four dark, unventilated rooms, one of which he, Tonkus, shares with four other boarders. After the evening meal at the long table in the kitchen, there is not much left to do but to throw the great, hulky body, the muscles quivering from fatigue, on the bed and lie there like a log until the heavy knock of the landlady is heard next morning and one must go quickly to the mill again after a hasty bite of breakfast. This for six days of the week — but the seventh, oh, then it is different.

On this day, pay day, the golden pay day, he turns his steps not to his boarding-house, but to the saloon of Michael Tusakis. For this evening he forgets the hot, blistering mold-room, forgets the heavy kettles, the scorching air, and knows only that he is a free American citizen of these United States. He is greeted cordially by the proprietor of the place.

"Ah, good evening to you, Mr. Gunakis, and how is it with you to-night?"

There! already he is made to feel that he is somebody, not a mere *moujik*, but a mister, a *ponz*. Soon he is joined by several more "misters," who like himself were only peasants in their old homes in the Baltic provinces. In a short time, after they have been sitting at the table for some time, things become lively. Songs flow from their lips, and occasionally one of the rough voices will strike out into some plaintive melody of far-away Lithuania. Then perhaps through his muddled brain will come to Tonkus thoughts of that little thatched cottage, the sweet-smelling fields, the village church, the little mother and perhaps even a fleeting picture of Barbe in her coquettish dress.

But pshaw! Who would change things even if one could. Does one not get many dollars a week for his labor here, and is one not his own master here, a mister like the Graf himself in the old country? Indeed, one would be a fool to leave the golden country!

MR. TAFT IN THE QUALIFYING ROUND FOR THE SUCCESSION
McCutcheon in the *Chicago Tribune*

Taft: "Honest now, you got to quit that boycott business!"
Donahay in the *Cleveland Plain Dealer*

THE LATEST IN LITERATURE
Webster in the *Chicago Inter Ocean*

APROPOS OF OUR ITINERANT PEACE CONFERENCE

BREAKING INTO LITERATURE

BY

WALLACE RICE

LITERATURE, in the sense in which it is to be used here, signifies that rainbow realm wherein dwell those who write about certain things in a certain way and are paid for so doing, in golden or silver coin, or in the jewels of doubtful brilliancy which Fame uses in her crowns. Unless there were objects of value in this realm, of course, no one would ever care to break into it intentionally — not for years. "He who writes, save for hire," said old Doctor Johnson, "is a fool."

Such a country, necessarily, must have frontiers and confines and — again for present purposes — it may therefore be said to be bounded on the north by Drama; on the east by all manner of Technical Writing; on the south by Journalism; and on the west by a people with astonishing powers of propagation, known collectively as Amateurs. It is invasion from this last region that the citizens of the republic of Literature perpetually fear, even though it is from thence that its own inhabitants are largely recruited.

The boundaries, on all four sides, have never been strictly delimited. For example, many who think, as they write, that they are in Drama eventually find themselves within the confines of Literature, and some not even there; some, dealing in technical and purely commercial writing, really achieve literary distinction, and it is notorious that lawyers hold their profession to be lettered, because they write monographs which are curiously called briefs; journalists are forever stepping over the borders until Literature itself becomes confused; while amateurs — really, most of our objections to them would remove themselves if they would live up to the laws of the land, not by

ceasing to write, but by insisting upon payment for what they get printed!

The province of Verse is inhabited chiefly by youth. Those of mature age who make excursions thither are in receipt of means from other sources; those permanently dwelling there are generally endowed, and not necessarily by Apollo or the Muses. Some who think themselves dramatists nowadays persist in the delusion until their works are really staged, when they learn that they are only poets, after all. Others who enjoy great repute in small circles, composed chiefly of kinswomen and clubwomen, sometimes awake to hear their most ambitious efforts described in hardly repeatable terms by competent critics, some of whom regard an anthology of bum poetry as one of the crying needs of the age, if only to serve as a horrible example to scribbling youth. But all come to understand that the chief use of verses in the living world is to eke out little corners and elbows in magazines and the like, to serve as "pluggers," in the printer's unfeeling phrase, or to act as the medium for pretty pictures paid for at rates that seem to the poet absolutely reckless.

But when we come to the adjoining province, that of Fiction, inhabited by writers of novels, romances, and short stories, we seem to find the conditions reversed. Most of us do not regard any novel as its own reward, which is exceedingly fortunate for the novelists, generally speaking. For, assuredly, no form of writing yet devised by man contains so surely within itself the seeds of its own dissolution. The novel, as a rule, lives only three months, and one of these antedates its presentation to the public. Even the most talked-about of them is like the wicked man of the psalmist, "in great power and spreading himself like a green bay tree. Yet he passed away, and lo, he was not: yea, I sought him, but he could

not be found." Can you remember last year's novels, any of them? or distinguish them from those of the year before? Have you ever tried to buy one six months after publication? The poet lives again, some of him, in books of collected verse; the novelist survives chiefly in second-hand book stores and the Congressional Library.

Yet, paradoxically, it is only in this single province of Literature that champagne exists except as a curiosity, and it is only here that the chug and toot of the automobile can be heard. Here be men of money, and just as in the days of lotteries it was only the names of prize-winners that came to the public ear, so it is only of Winston Churchill and his palatial home, of Robert W. Chambers and a million and a half of copies sold, of George Barr McCutcheon with almost as many, of Richard Harding Davis, or Mrs. Wiggs' creator, that the people generally hear or that the fictional aspirant holds before him as a pillar of fire by night.

Yet, even here, the purveyor of pious novels gains still greater earthly rewards. Miss Florence Kingsley counts her sales in the millions, and the Rev. Charles W. Gordon, "Ralph Conner," will not have to await the next world for all his emoluments.

Some curious reflections come to those rare souls who have been able to read the fiction of the day through a series of years and still reflect upon it with intelligence. We have come to look upon the era of the six best sellers as ushered in by the success of "David Harum," rightly disregarding certain previous huge sales, as of "Uncle Tom's Cabin," as sporadic. But it is not to the "b'gosh" medley of human nature and illiterature that we Americans can point with pride as beginning an epoch when even authors can wear evening clothes and belong to metropolitan clubs; something more nearly typical of the state of letters in the nation was the true pioneer of editions to be estimated only by the trainload — nothing less than "Mr. Barnes of New York," "Mr. Potter of Texas," "Miss Nobody of Nowhere," and other children of the same father. Archibald Clavering Gunter has never been accorded the reputation he deserves for having set the standard with

which most of our fiction writers have sought to comply ever since his first and best-known book made its appearance a quarter of a century ago.

Short-story writers, though the publishers are denying them the momentary eternity of a bound book at this time, dwell in one of the most favored portions of the province of Fiction, on sunny and by no means precipitous slopes. The multiplication of magazines — and magazines appealing to every taste — has made it possible for almost everybody who can write at all to get a short story into print and rejoice in payment therefor. It may be an evidence of national prosperity and national disregard for small coins that is going to meet reverses in the future, but just now — was there ever such a time?

Your fully accredited short-story writer, beloved of youth and maiden fair, can get ten cents a word for everything of that sort he chooses to write; three thousand words, three hundred dollars; about seven thousand words — a better length — about seven hundred dollars! And one might write, with diligence and not too much inventiveness, a properly proportioned short story in a week — let us see, fifty-two times seven hundred dollars is at least thirty-five thousand dollars a year! Besides, if one can not get ten cents a word, he is altogether likely to be able to compromise on half a cent a word; and that figures out, at a story a week, to be almost two thousand dollars a year. What poet would not regard this as affluence? Poe — poet and short-story writer both — never had more in his best years.

So much better, indeed, do short stories pay than novels and romances in proportion to the time and labor expended that many a writer of long stories undertakes the more difficult task only because the reputation his sustained work creates for him among magazine editors makes his shorter work the more eagerly sought and the better paid for. Most novels, like most books, do not pay and never have paid, except in this indirect manner.

Within the arid zone of Literature — and irrigation is practically unknown there — dwell the historian, the essayist, and the critic. This province is infested with mirages: the man who writes annals deems himself a historian; the man of

monographs, chiefly sociological, thinks himself an essayist; he who dashes off reviews deems himself a critic. It seems, casually, to be one of the most densely populated regions of the country; but the population effects are all due to mere mirage. The American historian has wedded himself to German method and, though interracial marriages are almost proverbially fertile, the union brings forth no inhabitants for Literature. The essayist has tied himself to one or another of the sciences, and the result is equally barren. Here and there one has hitched his wagon to the star of natural history and vaunted himself somewhat as a litterateur; the president and psychology proclaim him in fewer syllables as a liar. And the critic — heaven deliver him from his loneliness, for he is not even a widower!

Criticism in America is only too like snakes in Iceland, and in both cases the reasons are not far to seek. The outlets for the writing customarily thought to be that of critics are two: Through the newspapers and through the magazines. To be a newspaper critic, so-called, it is chiefly requisite that one should have a certain brief leisure from other more important duties on the staff. One's official status may be anything, from the editorship of the woman's page to an assistant sporting editorship; granted a weekly salary, eligibility is assumed. Some literary editors of daily journals believe, with reason, that the newspaper function in regard to books is not to criticize, in the sense of meting out praise and blame according to some standard generally accepted as literary, but simply to review books — to tell the public what kind of a book it is and whether it is likely to appeal to the popular taste. If it has sensations enough and timeliness enough, or an author sufficiently notorious, a book may even rise to the dignity of news.

If there chances to be no one of the staff of the newspaper who feels like "noticing" the books, if the exchange editor is too fully preoccupied with "live stuff" to clip a review from a metropolitan paper — and there are not papers in a score of cities in the United States that print original book reviews of any sort — then the volume is given to some one out-

side of the office who reviews the book for the book, which is all he gets for his pains. Now one advantageously situated can dispose of his review copies in such circumstances for about half their face value, for seventy-five cents in the case of a novel or more serious work. It then becomes a mere mathematical problem for him to make a decent day's wage by seeing how many books at seventy-five cents each go into the ten or fifteen dollars he needs every day to maintain himself and his family and to educate his children. If it is ten dollars, he has to read and review about thirteen volumes a day; if fifteen dollars, about twenty volumes a day.

This being the state of literary criticism in the United States at this time, it is small wonder that the critic who has no individual prejudices, who possesses a cultivated taste, and who makes full allowance for his own personal equation, finds himself unaccompanied, remote, and ill paid. He looks with envy upon the people of the neighboring province, that inhabited by literary advisers. These favored few — their land is no larger than a county in Delaware — have entered into an open alliance with the commercialism across their borders, and are forced to make no pretension whatever to anything nobler or higher. The literary adviser frankly tells his client, whether that client be a great publishing house or a stout and wealthy woman with an itch for literary notoriety, just what their work is worth in dollars and cents, and takes his fee therefor without further compunction. He has no temptations to undue praise or blame; his reputation rests solely upon a trustworthy commercial judgment of the money value of a manuscript, whether of literary worth or not.

But he has his artistic compensations nevertheless. No publishing house in America worth mentioning disregards literary values except in poetry — and not always then. Other things equal, literary worth takes first place in determining whether or not a given manuscript shall see the light of print. More than that, every reputable publisher in the United States brings out year by year volumes which portend little or no monetary return, merely because they do possess lit-

erary merit and promise, and he adheres to this commercial heresy with a constancy and singleness of heart that deserve more recognition than he is ever likely to receive. This it is that makes residence in the land of literary advisers so close to an ideal in many respects. Sunshine pours in the windows of that region almost every day in the year; only now and then some rain must fall into their lives through the tears of feminine aspirants upon whose literary hopes their wisdom frowns.

Such hopes are wisely crushed unless there is found talent, adaptability, and great diligence to fit one for permanent life in the country of Literature. It is true that fame of a certain sort is more readily obtained by writing than by any other form of human endeavor; any poet's corner in a country paper proves it. A glance at "Who's Who in America" will satisfy the skeptical that authors and journalists predominate in its pages, that even those in the professions of divinity, law, medicine, and education largely obtain admission through their published works. But to balance this, the financial return is so small as to be almost incredible; and no one knows it better than the literary adviser.

Of all the thousands of manuscripts written every year in the United States, not one in a hundred ever appears as a printed book. Making allowance on one hand for those which are never sent to any publisher, and on the other for those that go the rounds of every publisher ineffectually, the proportion of those published to those written is still less than one per cent. Of those that do appear finally, fully nine out of ten are written after conference with and a conditional order from the publisher, and by those of more or less reputation already acquired. The chance, then, of the unknown writer's seeing his book in print is hardly one in a thousand.

When it comes to the question of payment, after the book is printed, the average return is too small when considered with reference to the time, labor, and ingenuity involved, the hope deferred, the heartache of refusal, the grief of final rejection, to be regarded as even a pittance. Careful, though rough, calculations based on wide experience show that

the average price of a printed book is about a dollar and a quarter, the average sale about eight hundred copies, and the average royalty paid about ten per cent of the selling price. One-tenth of eight hundred times a dollar and a quarter is only one hundred dollars. But of the volumes published, nine are written by those of some reputation and only one by those who are novices, authors with their first book. Of the thousand dollars received as royalties for these ten it is manifest that the new man's work is likely to receive the least share, that he will not get even so much as the hundred dollars that the law of averages awards him.

When the average return on manuscripts written is considered, it is evident that the hope of the mere aspirant, the writer with his fame all before him, rests on the one chance he has in a thousand of his getting his work in print. If this is true, and no literary adviser of experience doubts its essential accuracy, the average return on the manuscript of the unknown writer is only one one-thousandth of less than one hundred dollars, something less than ten cents, a little fraction of the cost of typewriting, a twentieth of the cost of the paper, less even than the price of the pen and ink or pencil that went to the original writing. Small wonder that Sir Walter said "Literature is a good staff, but a poor crutch," or Doctor Johnson that "Many writers starve." Why, then should any one seek to break in?

* * * *

Look ye, how noble is the reward and how great the hope that accompanies residence in this spreading land of Literature of ours! How fair and brave the company! Citizens of the Republic of Letters all, however the living may throng within its borders, its chief inhabitants are still the fragrant memories of those who have dwelt therein before us, and made the land the most blithesome and precious of all earthly countries. Here one is indeed heir to the ages, and not that alone: we in turn may make our little bequests to time, and leave the great world somewhat the better for our having been in it — it may be a little, it may be for much. "God bless us all, every one!"

the beginning of each paragraph something that will make the somnolent reader of the Sunday newspaper sit up and take notice. That is style of an admirable kind; though in all probability Mr. Hale takes this labor of writing with little seriousness.

Fortunately, at any rate, he is not at all spoiled by a notion that he is influencing a big following or conducting a mission, for his philosophy starts with a frank recognition of such temperamental differences among men that the universal language of art is intelligible only to very limited circles.

The enthusiasm with which Mr. Hale extols painters and sculptors whose work he finds undeviatingly honest, and the fearlessness with which he applies sarcasm and withering contempt to much advertised celebrities, log-rolled by literary friends who act as their press agents, are characteristics of his art criticism which make one wish the man reached a larger constituency than that ministered to by a New England newspaper. He makes breaks, of course, and there is something to be said on grounds of theoretical psychology against the slashing kind of critical writing. But perhaps it is better that one good man should now and then be sacrificed as the victim of injudicious friends than that ninety-nine artistic frauds should continue to be perpetrated on the public.

Mr. Hale's most enthusiastic advocacy is of Messrs. Tarbell, Paxton, Wendel, Benson and De Camp, among his Boston colleagues; Willard Metcalf, Dewing and Chase in the New York group. Of those whom the Academy rejected last year and whom their following straightway proclaimed as martyred geniuses, the Boston painter-critic found most so weak that on the whole "one begins to think the academicians were not so far wrong in this matter at least. Mr. Hawthorne, Mr. Breckenridge, Mr. Donoho and perhaps Mr. Lawson might very well have been chosen, but the rest don't seem very important." Among the refused was the much-heralded painter of New York skyscrapers of whom Mr. Hale asks, "Shall the man who first imagined and imaged high buildings be insulted by a pack of beggarly academicians?" Regarding a genius of the clan Henri, elsewhere called

"the depressionists," he wrote: "His pictures represented rather grubby East Siders at their native dances." When he discusses the amusing Dabo brothers, apotheosized in prospectuses and high-class magazines by Bliss Carman and other distinguished literary gentlemen, Mr. Hale is at his happiest.

"A most amusing row has sprung up between the Dabo Brothers. That is, it is most sad to see brothers quarrel; but the subject and nature of this quarrel must indeed make one laugh. For it seems that they are fighting about which invented their manner of painting.

"Mr. Scott Dabo says, I believe, that his method is the result of his deep delving into the science of optics; but some of the rest of us who have dipped into that fascinating book of science in a casual sort of way can but wonder how he arrived at his conclusions. Where did he find authority for those aniline purples and that seaweed colored tree? And why should he want to patent these mawkish inventions?

What fisher fished the Murex up?
What porridge had John Keats?

"And as long as so many men paint better than he, why should he object that his brother paints as well?"

Persiflage of this sort has, it may be, a tendency to spoil the market for the painters who are satirized, precisely as jesting about the celebrated cocktails has made impossible Mr. Fairbanks' candidacy for the presidency. It is certain, however, that Mr. Hale has never attempted to wither with his witticisms the good name of any man whom he believed to be working sincerely for those qualities of construction and expression which strong artists esteem. As, however, he has been permitted in this article to mention by name the much eulogized Dabos, it is only fair to set against his funning, this eloquent opinion regarding one or other of them, published in the *Philadelphia Press*:

"Those who have been fortunate enough to see Mr. Dabo's work, which, like the work of any artist of the first rank at the beginning, is steadily rejected by the average hanging committee (for committees to-day are still doing what the hanging committee of half a century ago

how tiresome; their dull, stodgy, gobby, heavy oils — how they bore one."

Mr. Hale's silvery gray portrait of his wife, who is herself a painter of distinction; of his mother, of the pretty girls whose girly-girly qualities he tries, whether or not always successfully, to reveal, his studies of stripped athletes which give opportunity to a well trained painter's liking for studying muscles and their attachments — these I am not going to criticize or eulogize in detail.

Except to say that the things Philip Hale is painting, while highly esteemed among painters, are not making the sensation that has been caused by much that he has written. Art, however, is an odd game, as we all know, and none better than Mr. Hale, critic. He has no illusions as to the ultimate popular triumph of modest merit. He has written down as, "not an ass exactly, but a something which some of us might object to even more," a New York painter who was not

long ago interviewed in his handsome house and who spoke, to say the least, very crudely in explaining his prosperity. Against the self-advertising painter of fashionable portraits whose rule is "first paint your facts, then disguise them," we might place Philip Hale's personal ideal of a painter:

"It's when one knows a young fellow who sees straight, feels nature keenly and records his impression bravely, that one feels trouble is in store for him. That chap is going to have a hard fight. For he will try to render nature as it appears, and not as convention has arranged to have it look. Still he will have the fun of fighting, and the pleasure of being a painter. So it all comes even in the end.

"But don't forget this little paradox, that the more talent a man has, the more trouble he's likely to have in making a living, and the worse he paints (provided his stuff is passable) the more immediate success he will have."

WILL THE RAILROADS ABANDON STEAM

BY

CLYDE FENIMORE BURNS

ASSOCIATE EDITOR OF THE RAILWAY AND ENGINEERING REVIEW

VE years ago electric railroading jumped at a bound into our era. Before that the lightning had harnessed to our street cars, releasing forever from their weary task the decrepit horses that before had served for motive power. At the first dawn of the new era the electric railways reached out from the limits of our cities and touched suburban territory, then, rather timidly at first, struck out across the open country in a few favored localities of dense population, and connected neighboring cities.

At once it was shown that the interurban railroad was a profitable thing. Promoters found a virgin field for wizardry in finance; engineers found vast

and intricate problems in electric motive power that had not been met before; the people found an unwonted facility in answering the calls of business or of social pleasures to near-by cities. And the interurban railroad, an industrial factor entirely new in character, was with us. Now the lines are measured by thousands of miles, connecting in a veritable network almost every important city of our central and eastern states.

This is the genesis of electric motive power as applied to heavy transportation, for it must be understood that the operation of a six-ton street car by electricity is vastly different, in the practical problems involved, from propelling a thirty-ton car at fifty miles an hour, as is commonly done in interurban practice today. And so well has electricity made good in this wider field of transportation,

of Council Bluffs has built the structure which has become famous as the "Kid Police Force of Council Bluffs."

The "Kid" force is not maintained the year round, but only on the occasion of a holiday: New Year's, Christmas, May Day, Independence Day, Halloween, April Fools' Day, is the force in evidence. On those occasions when boys band themselves together to have "fun," does the "Kid" policeman get in his work. When the boys begin to ring door bells, shoot cannon crackers, steal apples, pull flowers, and play jokes the points of which are too coarse, then does the boy policeman sally forth and gather in his harvest of culprits.

If a boy, caught in the act by one of the youthful policemen, resists arrest, the young officer of the law secures his name, reports it to the chief of police, and the next day a full-sized policeman will call for the young man who refused to obey the boy policeman. Gradually the boys of the city have come to know that when they are placed under arrest by a boy policeman, the best thing to do is to accompany him to the police station and take their "medicine" like men.

A separate force is appointed for every holiday and in this manner the chief can reward those boys whom he wishes to place on the squad. A week before the day upon which the patrolmen are sent off on their beats, there are hundreds of applicants for the twenty-five positions. These applicants come to the chief in person and undergo a sort of examination. No boy who has been reported for misconduct within twelve months is allowed on the force. His record must be clear on that score, and that very fact keeps many Council Bluffs boys from straying a little bit to one side or the other of the path laid down by the chief. Every boy wants to be on the force. That is a settled fact and beyond dispute. And to be bad is not to be appointed. Therefore, in the very hope of receiving his appointment to the coveted position, the usual boy will be good. And the chief, who is a mighty good judge of boys in general, usually sees to it that a boy does not have to wait too long before his time of service comes around. In other words, the chief does not permit a boy to grow discouraged.

The "Kid" force originated five years

ago when one Halloween a regular policeman brought to the station one of the toughest boys of the town. He was a leader of "de gang" in his ward, and was a "holy terror" to everybody and everything.

Chief Richmond is fond of boys. He sat down and had a long talk with this one in particular. Finally, he asked the urchin to assist him in keeping order.

"If you find any boy doing things he should not do, you bring him down here to me," said the chief.

This the boy agreed to do. But in half an hour he was back again and walking into the chief's office, he said:

"Chief, de gang won't believe that I can arrest 'em if they don't do right. Can't you gimme a star?"

He got the star and again left the office. But evidently there were Doubting Thomases in that "gang," for soon the young policeman came back again, this time with two of his followers. He explained to Chief Richmond that the boys would not believe him, even when he had the star.

Richmond explained to the two strange boys the arrangement he had made with the leader, and got them so interested that soon they also wanted to be "cops" and carry a club and star.

Right then was born the Juvenile Police Force. The news of the new organization soon spread, and the next morning the streets for blocks around the police station were filled with boys who wanted to join the force.

Chief Richmond picked out twenty-five boys, gave them stars, and made them full-fledged policemen. To the disappointed ones who were not chosen, he promised that in the future they should all have a chance. But he told them that as prospective members of the Council Bluffs police force, they should be careful of their conduct, carry themselves like men, and let their behavior be above reproach.

The boys promised. Many of them have "backslided," however, and the juvenile force is necessary to take care of these and to prove a stimulant to those who are waiting their turn to be given a star.

And after five years' trial of the Juvenile Police Force, it is beginning to be noticed that there are fewer saloon

loafers in Council Bluffs than in probably any city in the country. Pool halls do not flourish in that city as they do in so many places. Tobacconists do not sell so many cigars and cigarettes to young men as are sold in other cities. The young men who ordinarily patronize those places began several years ago to "train" their habits so as to get on the police force. They have outgrown that police ambition

by this time, but the habits formed during the time of their probation have remained with them as they grew to young manhood. And the younger "cop" is forming the same good habits.

So that the Juvenile Police Force of Council Bluffs, in addition to furnishing protection to citizens, is about the best moral training school it is possible to imagine.

LIBERIA—ITS CRISIS AND OPPORTUNITY

BY

JOSEPH CRANE HARTZELL

BISHOP OF THE METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH

(See portrait on page 10)



HERE are few wharfs along the west coast of Africa, from Gibraltar to Cape Town, where steamers can land to discharge passengers and cargo. This line of coast must be over

seven thousand miles, if we follow the paths of the merchant ships which trade along its borders. So it happened that when our vessel cast anchor before Monrovia, the capital of Liberia, we were in the open sea, nearly three miles from the Government Wharf. The distance was longer because of the extended sand bar around which we had to row. This is my eighth visit to Liberia since 1897, the visits lasting from several days to nearly two months, and my interest in this little republic has grown each year, not only in intensity, but I trust also in intelligence.

Multitudes of people in America, and many as well in other civilized countries, have a special interest in the Republic of Liberia. Although my official travels each year take me to other parts of the African continent, when I am in America or Europe more people ask as to the status and outlook of Liberia than concerning any other country on the continent. The reasons for this are manifest. Liberia has now been before the world for sixty years as an organized government controlled entirely by negroes; in which a white

man can not vote and may not hold property. It is an experiment in what the negro can do in founding a permanent and independent nationality.

The republic was the outgrowth of African colonization movements in America from 1816 to 1847. During those thirty-one years the American Government sympathized and coöperated. In 1847 Liberia was organized, modeled after the United States. Since then, while America has had no official responsibility for the new nation, it has in all its diplomatic relations with the world recognized its paternal interest.

The motives which induced leading men both in the South and the North to coöperate in the African colonization work were various; extending from extreme selfishness in the South which sought to get rid of its free negroes as an element of danger in the midst of slavery, to a philanthropic purpose to help the negro back to his fatherland. In 1816 there were about two million slaves in America and nearly two hundred thousand free negroes. Many of the latter class were men and women with large infusions of Anglo-Saxon blood in their veins. There were many who were fairly well educated people of high spirit and purpose, who had grown up in the years before American slavery had become so fully set in the laws of the country, before the complete surrender of the nation

cient ability and moral rectitude, the customs service could not be efficiently organized. In two or three counties it is now a very serious matter to find enough men competent to fill the few government positions, including members of the legislature. Add still another suggestive fact, stated by the President in his message, that since the adoption of the new financial plan by which an English inspector of customs is organizing and directing the service, it has been impossible thus far, during nine months, to find enough competent men in two or three counties, who can give the sufficient guarantee, to take charge of the customs work.

The prevalence of licentiousness among a large proportion of the people is also a matter of very great concern among the good people of Liberia whose lives are consecrated to its welfare. The blighting curse of polygamy, backed by the aggressive influence of Mohammedanism, is manifest. Some who owe all they are to the Christian Church have used voice and pen to propagate polygamous ideas. The rum traffic is having increasingly bad effects, and I am sorry to learn that private drinking at home among both men and women is increasing. Bishop Levi Scott, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, when he visited Liberia in 1853, said that the Republic stood for two things; the observance of the Sabbath and the forbidding of the liquor traffic. To-day the Sabbath is fairly well observed, but in the other respect Liberia has greatly fallen.

It is not strange, therefore, in view of what I have said, that thoughtful men and women realize the supreme crisis which faces the Republic. To-day Liberia needs the friendly counsel and sympathetic coöperation of all its friends. And what is of special significance, recent events indicate that she is determined not only to rally her forces to help herself, but that she cordially asks the help of others.

The first great problem faced by the reformers was the question of finance. The Republic had lost its financial standing. Its own paper was at a ruinous discount, and when pressed for money it had to borrow chiefly from the traders at rates which, if continued, meant bank-

ruptcy. Several different schemes have been suggested, which need not here be enumerated except to say that one of them, the Liberian Rubber Company, now seems on the way to success, and this year will pay to the government \$10,000 as its share of profit.

But the great scheme was that entered into a year ago between the government and the Liberian Development Company, controlled and largely financed by people in England. This company has been granted large concessions as to minerals, if they can be found, and the development of the products of the forests and in agriculture. The company advanced a loan of \$500,000 at six per cent. This money goes to pay off the floating indebtedness, establish a bank, open up roads into the interior, etc. The customs are made a guarantee for the payment of the interest and principal. At the request of Liberia, the British Government has loaned one of its trained customs officials, who, with one or two assistants, is to organize the customs service, using, of course, Liberians. His work is intended to be principally educative. These are the general items of the scheme. For several months it has worked well. From the beginning all customs were paid in gold, and now all official and government bills are paid in silver or gold. The government is to have a credit in the bank sufficient for emergencies.

In answer to a series of questions, President Barclay, Secretary of the Treasury Howard and Mr. Lamont, inspector of customs, gave me the following information: The debt of the country is now about \$1,000,000; the customs receipts for the past year will be over \$300,000 in gold, and will easily go to \$400,000 annually and beyond, with the increase of trade sure to come as the whole scheme is carried out. This will pay the interest and provide a sinking fund for the debt, and the government will have an opportunity to develop the country on essential lines.

There have been some sharp criticisms of the scheme as a whole, but it has started well, and money at par is now in circulation in much larger quantities than for years. All seem to be encouraged. There are also some minor questions over which there has been some friction. These,

THE YOUNG MAN STRENUOUS

I.—“GREENWAY OF YALE”

AN OLD COLLEGE ATHLETE WHO IS MAK-
ING INDUSTRIAL HISTORY IN THE NORTH

(See portrait on page 8)

BY

CLARA CHAPLINE THOMAS

IF there is at hand a very late map of Minnesota, a map of not more than six months' vintage, a dot will appear in Itasca County on the highlands of the United States, where if one turn his sled to the southward he would land in Louisiana, granted that the coasting were good all the way, or if to the north, in Hudson Bay, provided he were not stalled in a snowdrift. That dot marks the center of what is fast becoming the greatest iron-ore mining district of the world, and the location of the model town of the Northwest. And it is named Coleraine.

Rhythmically back and forth swing the huge steam-shovels doing the work of a hundred men at a stroke. In and out of the mine pit rush the shrieking engines, panting impatiently when, for a brief moment, they have to pause for the cars to be loaded. With the mechanical sureness of the one, and the restless impatience of the other, John C. Greenway, the man who in such a brief while has transformed a peaceful, fragrant pinewoods into the likeness of a vast tract convulsed by an earthquake, traverses every foot of "the work" on his handsome bay horse directing present operations.

On the books of the United States Steel Corporation, Mr. Greenway appears as its viceroy in this district, but on the unwritten books of Minnesota's history he appears as the czar of the western Mesabi iron range.

"When Greenway gets an idea that a thing ought to be done, that's all there is to it," remarked one of his assistants. "He has a way of making people do things

whether they want to or not. It's because they know he's on the square."

Everybody on the Mesabi knows that he is on "the square," and through this there has grown up a most unique paternalism.

"Does the steel corporation own this section of the country, body and soul?" was the query put to one of Mr. Greenway's men when it appeared in answer to questions that "the company" with a most unincorporation-like philanthropy had reserved the site for the library, erected a perfectly equipped hospital, built a seventy-five thousand dollar school, donated land for parks, provided an exceptionally fine field for athletics in the warmer months and a slide for skeeving during the season of snow and was establishing sewer, water and electric systems.

"No," was the reply, "Greenway does."

"Isn't that about the same thing?"

The questioner was rewarded with a swift glance of displeasure. "Not much. He's a good mixer, but he won't merge."

It was true. The sole solvent of the capital and labor problem is bringing results on the Mesabi range; Mr. Greenway has been able to prove to the company which he represents that their interests are identical with the interests of the body of employees, and to persuade his men that the converse is equally true.

John C. Greenway began doing things when he "made the team" in his freshman year at Yale in '91. Thereafter as right end on the famous elevens of '92 and '93, as catcher on the nine for Carter, old Eli's great pitcher, and as presi-

dent of his class in '95, he was "Greenway of Yale."

Then he graduated and became machinist's helper in the Duquesne furnaces of the Carnegie Steel Company, for which he was recompensed to the extent of a dollar thirty-two a day.

"It's the first few years out of college that show what a man's made of," he said to me with the epigrammatic terseness of one who acts rather than talks. "He has to learn that he must pay for all he gets, and a high price at that. The only thing that will save him is enough old-fashioned common sense to appreciate the situation and sit tight."

For three years he "sat tight," and by sheer tenacity and energy won recognition as a man who got results.

"But," he remarked grimly, "superintendents would change, new methods would be introduced, and the whole thing was to begin over again. The greatest value of those three years was learning that the success of a big work depends upon the same men in power sticking to it until it's done."

That the lesson was well learned was evinced a short time ago: An offer was made to Mr. Greenway to begin a big work—who made the offer or what it was has no bearing on the matter. The offer meant much, but it was not accepted.

"It isn't the square thing to do," he said. "I've been with the work I have in hand now from the grass roots of it and it means a setback if I leave. Where you can find a hundred men to begin a thing, you can't find one who will stick by and see it through. I'm going to see this thing through."

It was while Greenway was sweltering in the Duquesne furnaces that the Spanish-American war broke out. Fighting was in his blood. His father had been a soldier and so had his grandfather, stanch figures in Confederate gray, so Greenway went to San Antonio and enlisted in the Rough Riders, and was soon commissioned a second lieutenant.

That he "did things" at San Juan is to be inferred from the fact that after the battle he was made first lieutenant for gallantry in action, and is thus described by President Roosevelt in his book, "The Rough Riders":

"A strapping fellow, entirely fearless, modest and quiet, with the ability to take care of the men under him so as to bring them to the highest point of soldierly perfection, to be counted upon with absolute certainty in every emergency; not only doing his duty, but always on the watch to find some new duty which he could construe to be his, ready to respond with eagerness to the slightest suggestion of doing something, whether it was dangerous or merely difficult and laborious."

On his return from Cuba with a recommendation from his ever-staunch friend, "the Colonel" for brevet-captaincy on account of gallantry, Greenway after a year in business became assistant superintendent of the Marquette Range mines at Ishpeming, Michigan.

Despite his college course in mining and the "dollar thirty-two a day" earned in the Duquesne furnaces, this position seemed to the Yale idol and San Juan hero about as logical as Sir Joseph Porter's admiralty. Still he "sat tight" and the company began to notice that things were being done.

When it was decided to penetrate the underground wealth of the Mesabi range in northern Minnesota it was seen that the undertaking would be one of vast scope. The board of directors selected Greenway as superintendent. The directions given were none too definite: "Get there as quickly as you can, find out what it's like, formulate your plans, and we will see to it that you get the appropriation you need."

In August, 1906, Coleraine became the dot on the map. Twelve shacks clustered about the bunk-house in which the Superintendent lived with his men. The great Canisteo district was opened.

"We must have men," was Mr. Greenway's first report to the company, "and what is more we must keep them. A man's business is only a part of his life. We must have homes for them or we can't get results."

He proposed that the company itself meet all the demands of public utilities, instead of leaving their fulfillment to the greed of private interests that usually blights the life of a town in the making. The company considered, reconsidered, and then told him to go ahead.

Greenway thought out his town.

A site was chosen on the shore of one of Minnesota's most picturesque lakes and the lots were platted. Mr. Greenway was not looking toward making money for the company from its land, however, and the sales were confined to those who were preparing to make Coleraine their home. A virtual certificate of character, and assurances that buildings of a certain kind and cost would be erected, with improvements made within a specified time, were required of each purchaser.

In disposing of the lots for business ventures, the town builder "reserved to the company" the right to sell liquor and to conduct the games of chance, thereby restricting the two main evils of a frontier town. Gambling has never raised its head in the community, but inasmuch as with foreign workmen to make demands Mr. Greenway realized that prohibition would mean only a clever system of "blind piggery," the edict went forth that one saloon was to be allowed for every five hundred of population provided that it conformed to certain conditions.

First of all it must obey the state law to the letter, not opening in the morning until seven, which is after the men have gone to work, closing at night at eleven, and remaining closed all day Sunday. It is required to be a place of purely commercial, not social nature, even the chairs being removed to prevent lounging about. Whisky only of a standard quality is sold, and a provision is made, and found most effective, for commissions to bartenders on all sales of non-intoxicants.

"It is a very simple scheme and there is nothing particularly ideal about it," he says, "but it works."

Substantial cottages of a quaint type of architecture were erected and it was arranged that the employees of the company could rent them for the reasonable monthly rental of about three per cent of their cost, this rent to be applied on the cost of the home if the householder desired to purchase it.

"The idea was to fix it so that a workman could come to us dead broke," said Mr. Greenway, "and have new heart put into him by a chance to own his home and give his children the advantages he wants for them, from his wages alone."

It is little marvel, perhaps, under the

circumstances, that it is not only in the matter of government of the range that Mr. Greenway is dictator. He is the final court of appeal in all sorts of cases of law and equity. In advice to another, he stated his rule succinctly:

"When a decision in regard to a public matter is to be made, get down to the bare facts as quickly as you can, and then come out so strong for the side you think is right that nobody can have any doubt as to where you stand. When you have to hit in such matters, hit — and hit hard."

It is interesting to note the relations between the men at work and the "boss."

"It isn't often that men are as tickled to death as we are to see their boss coming around," remarked one of them who has been with "the work" since the first drill was made. "He knows everybody on the job."

He knows, moreover, their families, the conditions under which they labor, their hardships, and their temptations. The accuracy with which he seems to have taken the measure of each man reveals the reason for the unmistakable language in which a criticism is couched, as well as the quick appreciation of a duty well performed. Although they work under his supervision with the regularity of machines, he never forgets, nor lets them forget, that they are men.

In Mr. Greenway's lexicon there is no such word as "pull." Promotions are based entirely on a man's worth to the work in hand. Yale and Harvard graduates are put to driving stakes to "try them out."

"If a man can't make good at the bottom, he can't make good at the top," laconically observes the man who received his training in the Duquesne furnaces. "When you start them in at the lowest rung, you discover the quitters — and a quitter is no good anywhere."

The hold which Mr. Greenway has upon the wills and affections of the humblest of his employees was well demonstrated recently in the general strike on the ranges by the fact that the Canisteo district alone was untroubled. It was also a commentary upon his unique influence throughout the region that besieged towns quite out of his district appealed to him in their extremity for advice.

There are no leisure moments in his calendar. Scarce has he reached his bachelor lodge for rest and refreshment than he is likely to be accosted by a distressed small boy who has come to confess his sins and entreat "the boss's" intercession with the stern tyrants at home; or perhaps a woman is waiting to beg him for aid in her domestic matters.

It is the feeling of his responsibility for the way the lives of those in his charge are lived that has brought a touch of white to John C. Greenway's temples and, despite he is but thirty-five, has lined

his face as deeply as many a man a score of years his senior.

Absolutely fearless, the first to go down into a flooded mine when he calls for volunteers, many a time having saved the life of one of his men at the risk of his own, he forestalls any holding back on their part when there is something hazardous to be done. A man of exemplary habits, who inhibits dissipation by example; a tireless worker, this man who does things is of that new type of Americans who can serve corporations and at the same time serve their day and generation.

II.—CHARLES D. CARTER: THE INDIAN IN CONGRESS

(See portrait on page 5)

BY

H. G. SPAULDING

NO greater interest attaches to any member of the Sixtieth Congress than to Charles D. Carter, the member from the fourth district of Oklahoma, an Indian who has all his life lived among his kinsmen. Carter is a man of great strength of character, and maintains that the Indian will be better off if thrown on his own resources and not watched over and guarded by the federal authorities. He hoped to become a member of the Indian Affairs Committee of the House, where he will advocate the removal of restrictions from the sale of Indian lands except the homesteads of full-bloods and the taxation of all lands held by them. He believes the Indian should assume all the burdens of citizenship, participating as he does in all the benefits.

He has been active in municipal affairs, and at the time of his election to Congress was a member of the city council of his home city, Ardmore, which has made greater civic progress than any city in Indian Territory prior to statehood.

Mr. Carter is a descendant of Nathan Carter, Sr., who was captured when a small boy by the Shawnee Indians at the Lackawanna Valley Massacre, when all

the other members of his family except his sister were killed. Nathan Carter, Sr., was afterward traded to the Cherokees and married a full-blood Cherokee woman. His son, Nathan, Jr., also married a full-blood Cherokee woman, and the son of this marriage, David, married a one-half breed Cherokee woman. David's son, Benjamin Wisnor, was captain in the Confederate army, and married a one-fourth blood Chickasaw woman, Serena J. Guy, sister of William M. Guy, chief of the Chickasaws.

Charles D. Carter was the only child of this marriage. He was born in a log cabin near Boggy Depot, near old Fort Towson in the Choctaw nation, on August 16, 1868. Young Carter moved with his father to Mill Creek postoffice and stage stand on the western frontier of the Chickasaw nation in April, 1878. Beginning in October, 1880, he attended a subscription school at a log schoolhouse near Mill Creek for two terms and entered the Chickasaw Manual Training Academy at Tishomingo in October, 1892. He missed two terms while employed on his father's ranch as a cowboy, but finished on June 18, 1897.

As a boy he worked on his father's

ranch and farm as a farmhand, cowboy and bronco buster, and began life as a cow-puncher for Col. Perry Froman at Diamond Z ranch, where the city of Sulphur now stands. In September, 1889, he came to Ardmore, Indian Territory, which has since been his home. He first engaged in a general merchandise store as clerk, book-keeper, cotton buyer and cotton weigher, remaining three years, when he was appointed auditor of public accounts of the Chickasaw nation, serving two years. He was a member of the Chickasaw council for the term of 1895, superintendent of schools for Chickasaw nation for 1897, and in November, 1900, was appointed mining trustee of Indian Territory by President McKinley, serving four years, but was not an applicant for reappointment. In 1895 he engaged in the fire

insurance business. Mr. Carter was secretary of the first Democratic executive committee of the proposed new State of Oklahoma from June to December, 1906, and was elected to Congress on September 17, 1907.

Mr. Carter gives his nationality as seven-sixteenths Chickasaw and Cherokee Indian, nine-sixteenths Scotch-Irish. He is a man of generous disposition and jovial to a marked degree, and his laugh will soon come to be known throughout the cloakrooms and his stories will always attract a group about him. He has his serious side, and is in a position to do his country a vast amount of good by bringing about a change in the treatment of the red man which will check the steady degeneration of the race which has set in under the paternal care of the government.

III.—ROBERT RUTHERFORD McCORMICK

A MATTER-OF-FACT YOUNG MAN IN POLITICS

(See portrait on page 7)

BY

WILLIAM HARD

MR. BILLY (*alias* William E.) KENT, of Chicago, who enjoys the unique distinction of being a Humorist as well as an Uplifter, and who once pointed out one of the gravest dangers of Reform by remarking, "The problem is, how to uplift the town without getting too good ourselves," addressed his intellect not long ago to a thorough revision of the ancient maxim "Whatever is, is right."

After long thought in deep retirement he came out with a totally new edition to the following effect:

"Whatever is, is so."

This is one of the most impregnable apothegms ever composed, and while Mr. McCormick may never have heard of it, it lies at the foundation of his young but extensive career.

Mr. McCormick is a matter-of-fact young man. He takes things as they are. When he leaves them they are better. But, to begin with, he takes them as they

are. He is among those who while they can see no honesty in denying that present institutions are extremely imperfect, can at the same time see no sense in denying that they exist.

Mr. McCormick's conviction with regard to the existence of present institutions is so strong that he is a prominent member of the Cook County, Illinois, Republican Organization. Which is no place for a man who hesitates to associate with facts.

Two years ago, being then twenty-five, going on twenty-six, Mr. McCormick was elected President of the Board of Trustees of the Chicago Sanitary District. This is one of the four or five most important local offices to which a Chicagoan can aspire. But, again, it is no place for a man who is uncomfortable in the same room with a fact. The facts which existed in the Sanitary District were so numerous and so scandalous that young Mr. McCormick must have felt like Alice

in Wonderland when he looked at them.

The Sanitary District was then one of the worst public departments in the West. It is now one of the most efficient and one of the most incorruptible. This change has been due partly to other men but mainly to Mr. McCormick, now twenty-seven, going on twenty-eight. It is no small service for a plain, matter-of-fact young man of his years to have rendered to his city.

Mr. McCormick made a bad enough start as a politician. He came, socially, from the district which is popularly conceded to the control of Mrs. Potter Palmer. His father had been ambassador to Vienna. His grandfather was a brother of the Cyrus McCormick who began making reapers. His mother was a daughter of Joseph Medill, the war-editor of the Chicago *Tribune*. His uncle was the present editor of the *Tribune*. He himself had been educated at Ludgrove School, near London, England, afterward at Groton in this country and finally at Yale, where he had acquired the degrees of "Alpha Delta Phi" and "Scroll and Key."

These things were not really discreditable to him, when you come to think about it, but they were not exactly political assets in the district just north of the River in Chicago where Mr. McCormick had to get votes when he made his campaign for alderman in the spring of 1904.

Mr. McCormick also made a bad enough start as a reformer. He came politically from the district controlled by "Unser Fritz" Busse. "Unser Fritz" is not notorious as a reformer. Nevertheless he has an eye for real men (e. g., Mr. Brundage who made such a good record as President of the County Board and is now Mr. Busse's corporation counsel), and he backed Mr. McCormick to win.

Mr. McCormick was only twenty-three years old and, beyond palliation, a silk-stocking. And the ward, the Twenty-first, was traditionally and despondently democratic. But Mr. McCormick's first appearance on the streets dissipated all the rumors about his being a parlor-ornament.

He is six feet four inches tall and always gives one the impression of intending to grow a few inches more before stopping. 't look finished. His

legs and arms are long and sprawly. He is full of the most youthful kind of youthful vigor. He has, generally speaking, the build and stride of an unbroken colt. When he plays polo, which he does every summer, his friends always confidently expect him to mar the season with a broken neck, his own or some one else's.

His speech is quick, direct, abrupt. He treats a teamster with the same courtesy as a bank president and a bank president with the same offhandedness as a teamster. He is no respecter of persons. His hair is as unsubdued as the rest of him and waves to the breezes with as much disorder as its shortness will permit. His eyes are gray, wide-open, concealing nothing, but at the same time cool, steady, admitting nothing. His manners are impulsive, unpremeditated, sincere.

Like Mr. Roosevelt, if he lives to be a hundred there will still be something boyish about him.

The voters of the Twenty-first Ward looked at him and voted for him. He was dressed then as now in clothes which looked as if they would have been better if better had been at hand or worse if worse had been available. Tan shoes; blue socks with a white stripe; an easy business suit with a short sack coat; a light blue shirt; a twisted, maltreated red tie; a turn-down collar—such was, and is, his usual attire.

He wore these things not because they looked democratic but because they happened to be close to him when he got up in the morning. He would have worn anything else that was equally convenient. It is a matter of political tradition that on one occasion he lost twenty votes for a legislative measure by appearing at a political conference in polo togs. He wore those togs simply because he happened to have them on. He would just as soon have worn buckskin trousers and a corduroy jacket. His conception of democracy in clothes is that it consists not in dressing like somebody else but in dressing in any way one pleases whenever one wants to.

The voters of the twenty-first ward made Mr. McCormick an alderman in spite of his being a Republican and in spite of his being socially if not temperamentally, a silk-stocking. They had looked at him, they had shaken hands

with him and they liked him. Which is a sound, bed-rock beginning for a statesman in a democracy.

Mr. McCormick, as alderman, opened an aldermanic office in the Bush Temple in the heart of his ward and proceeded to listen to complaints from constituents whose garbage had not been removed. To these details of ward-life he gave industrious attention, but at the same time he did not neglect the larger questions which concerned the whole city. At the end of his very first year as alderman he had made such an impression on his colleagues that he was appointed a member of the steering committee and also of the local transportation committee, the two most important committees in the whole council.

These honors would have been enough for the second year of his term, but a newer and a larger honor was coming his way. In November, 1905, before the expiration of his first term as alderman, he was nominated and elected to the Presidency of the Board of Trustees of the Chicago Sanitary District.

Some opposition was stirred up against him during the campaign by a judicious exploitation of the fact that his relatives, the McCormicks of the International Harvester Company, had a lease of land from the Sanitary District down along the banks of the Drainage Canal and that Mr. McCormick was being put forward in order to grant them other favors. The only result of Mr. McCormick's election, however, so far as the Harvester Company is concerned, has been that Mr. McCormick has dug up a forgotten clause in the Harvester Company's lease and has obliged his cousins to construct an extremely expensive dock along their canal frontage. It will be a long time before the Harvester Company will want to see another cousin in office.

When Mr. McCormick was installed in his new office he found that all the jobs at the disposal of the Sanitary District, which controls and operates the big thirty-two-mile sewage and ship canal from Chicago to Joliet, were divided into nine lots. Why nine? Because there were nine trustees. Each trustee then gave away the jobs in his lot to his friends.

Mr. McCormick put an end to this job-

lot system. He persuaded the board — and it is much to their credit that they were persuaded — to lodge all appointive power in the hands of the president of the board, subject to the veto of a majority of the other members.

This concentration of authority has brought a concentration of responsibility. From that day to this the candidate for a position connected with the Sanitary District has been obliged to show personal and moral and mental as well as political qualifications.

Mr. McCormick's political qualifications are considerable. He is a matter-of-fact young man. He knows that politician simply means "citizen interested in politics." He knows that a public man can't depend entirely upon the support of citizens who are not interested in politics. If the politicians can give him the right man for a place he takes him. If they can't, he looks elsewhere. His private secretary, Mr. Hoyt King, for instance, has been known in Chicago principally as an inveterate investigator and prosecutor of criminal politicians. Mr. King's appointment was a rather broad hint.

The removals and appointments made in the Sanitary District during the last two years have been quiet, steady and successful. A department which used to be the happy feeding-trough of incompetent precinct captains has been raised to a high level of honesty and capacity. It has been plain, hard, every-day, matter-of-fact administrative labor. But from it has emerged a governmental body capable of governing.

Mr. McCormick does not rank as an extreme radical. When he was in the city council for instance he was not a municipal-ownership alderman of the "immediate" kind. He believed strongly in submitting all traction ordinances to a referendum vote of the whole people and in accepting their decision, but he did not personally believe that "immediate" municipal ownership was financially feasible.

It is not as an extreme radical that Mr. McCormick has reformed the Sanitary District. It has been a matter simply of business sense and of public honor. But no extreme radical in the town has resisted the encroachments of unscrupu-

lous corporations more systematically or more enthusiastically than Mr. McCormick.

The latest instance has been that of the Economy Light and Power Company. Through a scandalous political water-power lease secured from the commissioners of the Illinois and Michigan Canal, the Economy Light and Power Company, at Joliet, got in the way of the Drainage Canal of the Chicago Sanitary District and also in the way of the projected deep-water ship canal from the Lakes to the Gulf.

Mr. McCormick proceeded to attack the Economy Light and Power Company in the press and in the legislature. But the Economy Light and Power Company is the same thing as the Chicago Edison Company, and the Chicago Edison Company is intimately allied with many of the largest financial interests in Chicago. Mr. McCormick was fought in the back as well as in front. He raised up enemies for himself in Chicago as well as in Joliet, among financiers as well as among politicians. He found that he had friends who believed in reform when it consisted in preventing policemen from taking a drink in a barroom on a cold night but who felt chilled to the bone when they thought of preventing the Chicago Edison Company from continuing to enjoy the quiet and profitable possession of a water-power lease belonging rightfully to the public.

Mr. McCormick left these friends behind him, some of them his own relatives, and persevered. It has been a long fight and it is not yet ended. But it can have only one conclusion. It is being waged by a gentleman unafraid of family influence, financial influence or political influence. When it began Mr. McCormick stood almost alone. Now there are others in growing numbers with him. At the wind-up there won't be enough left of the dams of the Economy Light and Power Company to stop a chip on the way to New Orleans.

Mr. McCormick's battles have all been with facts. He may be a political philosopher but he has given no scintillating evidence of it. He is not a particularly good speaker. He is simply a clear-headed, clean-blooded, immensely vigorous, practically capable young man. He has al-

ways done "the next thing." His conception of the ultimate destiny of society he has never divulged.

But there is one respect in which his career, practical as it is, touches the philosophy of contemporary politics. There is a great deal said nowadays about "controlling" corporations, especially quasi-public corporations, and even of owning and operating them. And in various parts of the United States we have witnessed the spectacle of governmental bodies which couldn't control a fruit-stand, or operate a wheelbarrow, trying to coerce gas companies, electric light companies and traction companies. These efforts have thrilled the public and amused the companies.

But we are beginning to perceive a glimmer of light. We are beginning to apprehend that corporations, which are efficient, will never be controlled by governmental bodies which are inefficient. This is the reason why many corporation officials are dropping their subscriptions to reform societies.

A reformed governmental body means one which is not only honest and amiable but one which is strenuously and ruthlessly efficient. And therefore every really reformed governmental body means one which will control the corporations with which it comes in contact because otherwise the corporations will control it. It is always a battle to the death. One of the two sides must be on top. It is usually the corporation side. It is the public side only when the governmental bodies through which the public operates are as strong and as remorseless as the corporations themselves. "Sympathy with the people," "hatred for the oppressor" and "a heart in the right place" won't be enough. It is going to be a struggle that will demand sheer, brutal, administrative strength.

In making his particular department of government honest, capable and strong, Mr. McCormick has taken a long stride toward the day of public control of corporations in Chicago. The actions of a man of action always have a philosophy in them even if his words do not reveal it.

Mr. McCormick is now twenty-seven, going on twenty-eight. He is a party politician and in his reform work he has had the cordial support of many of his

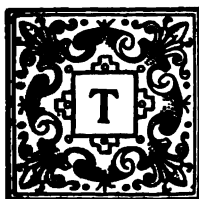
fellow-politicians. He is a regular and he has worked along regular lines. He doesn't care for the side-lines. He is a matter-of-fact young man who can't shut

his eyes and play that government by parties doesn't exist. He is making his part of his party good and his part of his local government strong.

PROSPERITY TEMPERED WITH SUICIDE

BY

SIDNEY A. REEVE



HE rate of suicide in this country has long been steadily upon the increase. Within recent years, and notably since 1900, this steady rate of increase has become a rapid one.

In Figure 1 are displayed curves showing the increase, during the forty years, from 1864 to 1904, inclusive, in the chances of one's dying by suicide rather than by some other method. The curve marked A shows the increase for the United States from the vital statistics of the United States census. Curve B shows the comparative growth of the suicide-rate in Great Britain.

Curve B, it should be explained, does not show Great Britain's rate on the same

scale as that for the United States. The scale for Curve B was so arranged that it should coincide with Curve A in 1860. Thereafter it shows that the rate of *growth* of suicide in Great Britain is closely what it has been here; but the average number of suicides per thousand of population in Great Britain has always been considerably less than that here.

Curve A has been arranged to extend from one of the darkest periods of our national history to one of the brightest, for the last point of the curve applies to only the first half of 1907. Even in 1900 the outlook was brilliant in comparison with the hesitating self-deprecation which characterized this country in its comparison with other governments previous to the Spanish War of 1898. Yet from 1864 to 1900 the suicide-rate had

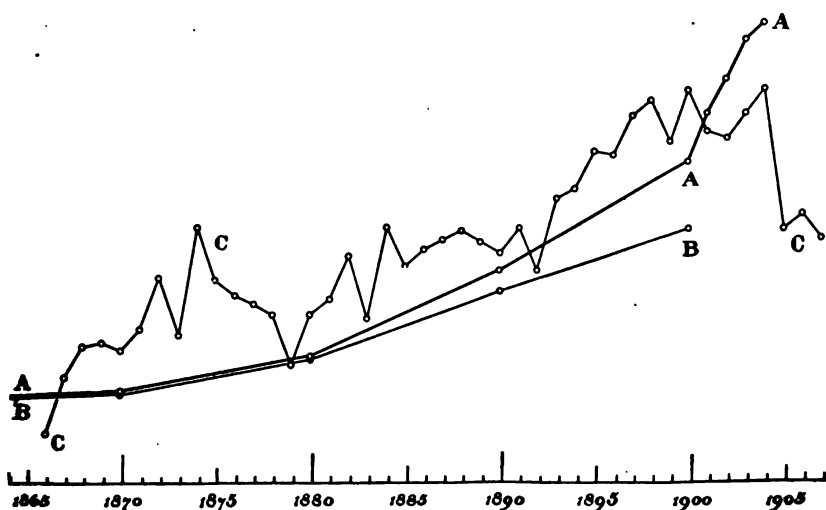


FIGURE 1.—SHOWING THE INCREASE IN SUICIDE IN FORTY YEARS

From 1864-1904: A—In the United States in proportion to deaths from all other causes; B—Similarly in Great Britain; C—In Manhattan in proportion to the population. The lines indicate the number of suicides per thousand of the population

multiplied by two and years of progress into the new century saw this rate increased to 3.4, or at of 0.22 per annum.

Curve C shows the suicide-rate for Manha 1866 to July 1, 1907, y so small a territory th fluctuates widely from y of this fluctuation is d political outline of the is due to economic caus eral result is seen to be i the two nations.

The curve for Grea show that our increa despair is due to causes peculiarly local in an Great Britain were no roborate this view, stati tered from all of the p cial nations. After G many certainly comes score. And in Germa rapidly on the increas come the subject of spe investigation. Even younger children are p Minister of Education special report concerni the young.

Yet, in order to sh that the increase of sui try has not been confin conditions of any one displays the suicide-r states and cities separa 1906 The states con York, as a state combin culture and manufactu proportion; Massachus almost exclusively eit very little agriculture, time governed, it is a usual justice, purity as Indiana, as a state t agricultural in its activ a great state can be, and standing high in the intelligence of its popu chosen are New York, cago, as the greatest representative met-ropolitan centers.

Of all these Massachusetts alone ever reveals a decrease in its suicide-rate, for more than a year or two at a time. From

from even this oasis in despair comfort is denied t sult was even then fifty than it had been in 1880

Some of the wide fl

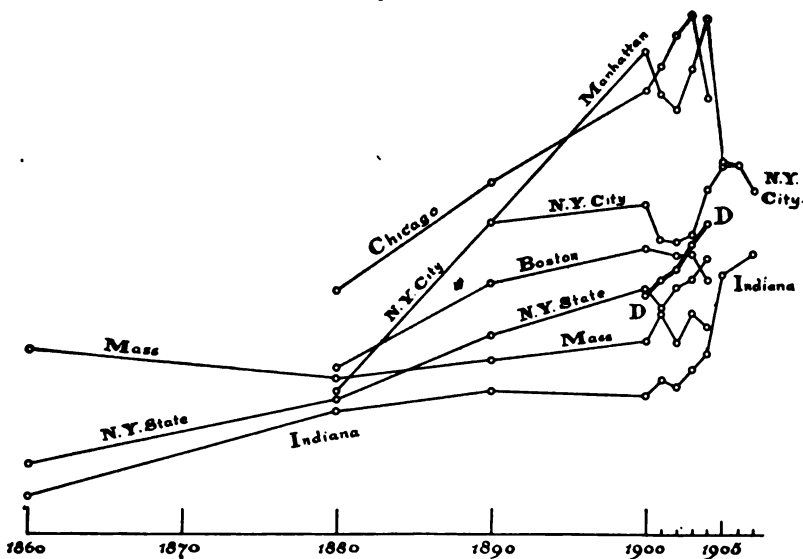


FIGURE II.—SHOWING SUICIDE INCREASE IS NOT CONFINED TO ONE LOCALITY
The Curve DD displays the statistics in proportion to the population in ten eastern states and several hundred cities averaged together

other curves of Figure 2 are due to academic causes, such as changes in political outline, plan of classification, etc., in part. But Chicago shows a phenomenal increase in suicide-rate extending over twenty-four years, too long a period for artificial factors to be appreciable in their effect. During the two decades from 1880 to 1900 the growth of suicide-rate was 82.5 per cent, and in three years more had reached 113.5 per cent, as compared with 1860. But 1904 witnessed a drop below the rate for 1900, and for 1905 and 1906 the figures are not yet available.

Statistics of suicide are not only an excellent general indicator of a country's unhappiness, but they are a more accurate measure of its moral forces than almost any other means of estimate. The figures as to deaths and their causes extend over long periods of our history, with an accuracy never to be hoped for from statistics as to crime, lunacy or pauperism. There have been wide variations, as the decades rolled by, in the idea as to what constituted a crime, a lunatic or a pauper; and especially the first two. But there has never been any doubt as to what constituted a death, nor as to the importance of recording it. There have been doubts in many cases as to whether a death were suicidal or homicidal, but this

has not materially affected the records. For this reason it seems well, in connection with suicide, to consider also the other forms of violent death. Their statistics are equally reliable. The causes are much the same. Pressure upon life may result in any one of several forms of violence. Whether the distressed spirit turn upon itself or upon others, in its frenzy, is much a matter of chance. At least, it depends upon the internal conformation of the unfortunate individual, rather than upon the sort of pressure put upon him by his environment.

The "violent" class of deaths in the reports includes not only the suicides and homicides, but also the accidents, drownings, poisonings, etc. In many of these cases it is impossible to ascertain whether the death were purely accidental, or whether suicidal or murderous intent were present. The same remark holds true of many of the "double" murders and suicides which are now so common. Where it is obvious which party did the killing, the other's death is classed as a murder; yet it is, in many cases, in reality a suicide. Where illuminating-gas is the destructive agent chosen, the uncertainty is still greater. Often whole families are involved, by a frenzy of despair on the part of one or two mem-

bers so outrageous that it can be understood only as having fed so long upon the sufferings of its own kind that it seemed a kindness to murder; in which case the figures from all the deaths are needed, if they are to measure properly the degree of unhappiness at work.

For all these reasons the figures as to all classes of violent deaths are open to much less question, as to consistency and accuracy, than are those of suicides alone, which they usually outnumber ten to one. But there are other reasons than mere accuracy for regarding with interest the statistics of violent deaths.

Humanity has an instinctive horror of violent deaths in others, which is second only to its horror of its own impending death, and often transcends it. For all that man is said to be "by nature a fighting animal," he has for long needed subjection to cruel pressure before he would knowingly kill his own kind, whether in passion, in cold blood or indirectly through carelessness and neglect. The sense of responsibility for the lives of others is woven into the fiber of common manhood. Each day's news brings fresh instances of its spontaneous outcropping in heroic form in the rough breasts of untutored, unknown humanity. Railroad-men, seamen, miners, "sand-hogs," fire-laddies, policemen, surf-boatmen and private soldiers are constantly giving their lives to save those of utter strangers, for whose safety they have become responsible only in the commonplace round of every-day duties, or quite by chance, and for no other reward than self-respect.

Forces sufficient to annul these fundamental instincts must be of the most persistent sort. They must be quite external. They must be regarded as abnormal. They must undermine the very roots of life. Most of all, they must be of enormous dimensions and universal distribution, for their effects, revealed in these curves, show throughout a population of many millions, scattered over an entire continent, living in great cities or operating great farming districts, working on high mountains or in the bowels of the earth, toiling in the darkness of the broad waters or cramping themselves over office-desks. In such a gigantic and heterogeneous population as that, neither suicide nor violence to others may ever arise,

consistently and uniformly over decades of time, as the sporadic outcropping of some fantastic whim of the "free" will. It can be only as the result of some great hidden but all-pervading pressure, more permeative than is the law of the land, more irresistible than are the primal instincts of human nature.

For these reasons it becomes of interest to note that general violence, as a cause of death, has been upon the steady increase in the United States for more than fifty years, quite in the face of an equally marked growth of public sentiment against violence in prize-fighting and other sports. During recent years this growth has been markedly accentuated.

In considering death-rates it must be remembered, in the first place, that the total or general death-rate, from all causes combined, both for the nation as a whole and for most of its states and cities, has been steadily upon the decrease during these same fifty years. That is to say, the average length of life is increasing. The chances of one's dying from any of the so-called general diseases, and from most of the specific ones, including such familiar household terrors as smallpox, typhoid, diphtheria, scarlet fever and spinal meningitis, are markedly decreasing, except locally and temporarily. Tubercular consumption is about stationary as a cause of death, the forces fighting for and against it being about evenly matched. Pneumonia and cancer are both upon the increase, the former generally and the latter locally. In addition, there are a few entire classes of death causes which are steadily and rapidly upon the increase. These special classes are: (1) Diseases of the heart; (2) certain classes of sexual diseases, and (3) general violence, including suicide. All these methods of death are actively increasing, according to the data of the United States census, in all sections of the country.

Figure 3 is devoted to showing the growth in the aggregate death-rate by all these methods, in combination. Curves are drawn for the United States as a whole, and for Massachusetts, New York State and Indiana separately. In addition is offered the curve EE, applying to the same aggregation of states and cities as did curve DD of Figure 2.

All of the curves agree in showing a steady and rapid increase in the rate over forty or fifty years, with a marked acceleration since 1900. During this period has occurred the discovery of antiseptics, with its wonderful amelioration of the danger involved in operation for injuries and in maternity cases, *among those able to attain its enjoyment*. The only conclusion possible is that the proportion of those unable to procure the medical aids offered with lavish devotion and free of charge by scientific men, is

But the lull does not drop the rate to the point occupied before the panic, and it is only temporary.

The further continuation of prosperity always leads to a resumption of the growth of the suicide-rate; ending in a peak as the prosperity narrows again into hard times, which is much higher than any previous peak. Apparently the last of these peaks occurred in 1904. The three years since then have witnessed a lull in the growth, to be sure; but at a plateau-level, so to speak, which is still much

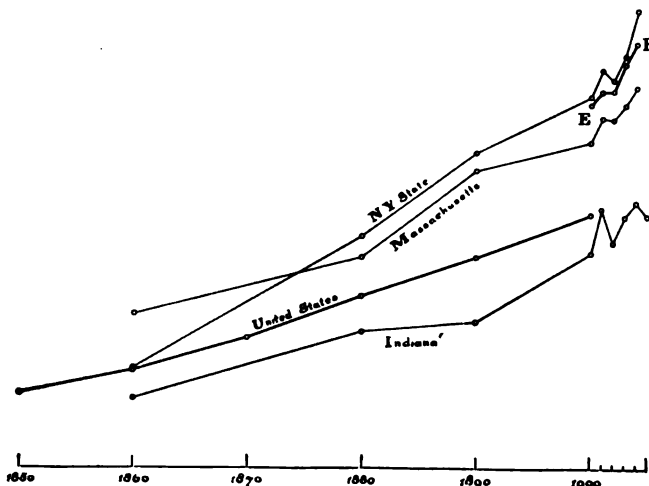


FIGURE III.—GROWTH OF THE AGGREGATE DEATH-RATE FROM THE SPECIAL CAUSES MENTIONED ON PAGE 94

Curve EE indicates its growth in the same ten eastern states and several cities as in Curve DD in Figure II

tremendously on the increase. The best illustration of this contrast—of how science offers health freely to all, and how “business considerations” debar its gift from the multitude—is in the case of measles. This disease is never regarded as even serious among the well-to-do and the only prescription for it is careful nursing. Yet in the slums where careful nursing is the most unobtainable of all things, it is a fatal scourge.

As to suicide alone, its dependence upon commercial conditions is fairly obvious and direct. According to the best light offered by the data, suicide not only increases during panics or hard times, as might be expected, but it also increases rapidly during periods of commercial prosperity. The first advent of prosperity, after a panic, always leads to a temporary lull in the growth of suicide.

higher than any of the slopes up which we have so painfully climbed during the last half-century.

On the score of suicides and violent deaths alone, to say nothing of the dread diseases of the list on page 94, the price we have paid for knowing enough to do better is a fearful one. One hundred and fifty thousand suicides have occurred in this smiling land of ours since these curves began to rear their awful heads. Sixty thousand of these, or over forty per cent, have occurred within the last decade, “the most wonderful era of prosperity the world has ever known!” Two millions of violent deaths have occurred in the United States within these same fifty years, and over a third of them within the last decade!

Is it not time to pause and take thought?

THE MAKING OF TO-MORROW

HOW THE WORLD OF TO-DAY IS PREPARING
FOR THE WORLD OF TO-MORROW

Paper Clothing

By Annie E. S. Beard

LONG years of experimentation have resulted in producing a new yarn resembling paper, that is proving a commercial success in the making of textile fabrics. Xyolin is the name given to this new thread or yarn, the invention of which must be credited to Emil Claviez, a manufacturer in Saxony. It is wood fiber spun into a paper thread or yarn, ninety-five per cent of it being cellulose, such as is used for newspapers, and five per cent cotton. It is used exclusively in weaving, and possesses characteristics that render it particularly serviceable. It is not brittle, and it neither shrinks nor stretches to any appreciable extent. Moisture has practically no effect upon it and the material made from it does not readily crush or dent like paper. It proves to be a good substitute for cotton, linen, jute and even silk. It combines the good qualities of the two first-named at one-third the price of cotton and one-tenth the price of linen.

When bleached, the thread is of snowy whiteness, but, being paper, it absorbs delicate shades of color in larger range than either cotton, silk or linen. And light does not appear to fade the colors it takes. The thread combines easily with other materials when the manufacturer so desires. Factories both in England and Bohemia are making this paper yarn and thread and supplying to textile manufacturers for use in their mills. Paper floor coverings have been woven in large quantities and exported to the United States and elsewhere. They are made in various thicknesses as rugs, mats or carpets, in attractive designs. Possessing certain distinguishing qualities, they promise very acceptable for household use, they do not retain dust easily and can

be cleaned by beating or vacuuming without injury. Housekeepers will prize their possession because it is not liable to moth damage.

In the proportion of one part of xyolin to three parts of jute or cotton to produce sacking that is as strong as jute but yet as strong as jute goods as it costs only one-half as much, they doubtless prove an acceptance in the making of sacks and bags.

For inexpensive garments, this material is also suitable. It possesses sufficient porosity to be suitable for hygienic underwear, giving warmth and lightness, and used in outing costumes. The material for a three-piece men's suit costing not over \$10.00. "Canvas" shoes and slippers made of it and outing hats for men and women.

The adaptability of xyolin for various uses may be seen in the fact that more than 7,000,000 pieces of material have been made from it, and sold, at a price of twenty-four cents per yard of medium size. And it is believed that it will cause the retail purchaser to buy less linen toweling, unless other uses are found. For upholstery purposes it is equally serviceable. As it does not suffer injury from light, it is well adapted for use in parlors or in country homes.

It is, of course, not to be expected that xyolin can equal fine goods for clothing, but the fact that it can be put, with its own qualities and its extreme durability, to procure for it a wide market throughout the world. The process of manufacture

the time of its accomplishment only awaits the date when there is a sufficient demand for the land to make the undertaking necessary.

A Milk Slot Machine

CHIEFLY in Germany, though also in the United States, automatic machines are rapidly increasing. One of the latest devices furnishes milk, and a smaller one delivers cups to hold it. Upon putting a coin in the slot a knob is pulled and a folded cup appears made of water-tight, hard paper. In the larger machine a coin is inserted in the slot and a pointer placed upon the words "hot" or "cold," as may be desired. A foot lever is then pushed down and a tap appears, from which the cup is filled. Then the supply is shut off automatically and the tap disappears. It is thus always protected from dirt and dust. When the lever returns to its original position it moves a counterweight and through it a small pump which drives a current of water over all parts wetted by the milk, so cleansing them. From a hygienic standpoint, therefore, the process is most satisfactory.

The water tank has a capacity of ten quarts, that for the milk forty to fifty quarts. There is a casing in the center filled with ice, insulated by double walls, to keep the milk constantly fresh. If hot milk is desired, the small lever permits a certain quantity to run over a flat box, under which a flame is burning. This latter is automatically regulated and stopped. The milk is heated to about 95 to 104 degrees Fahr.

The process, from the instant the coin is put into the slot to the filling of the cup with hot milk, lasts scarcely a minute. These machines are appreciated in German schoolyards.

A Moth that has Cost Millions

By Livingston Wright

ALTHOUGH millions have been spent in fighting it, the gypsy and brown-tail moth pest still thrives, and now experts fear that Canada, New York, New Jersey and the Middle West are to be invaded.

It is the greatest pest of the age, one of the greatest of any age since the locusts

flew over Egypt. An overwhelming number of moths have settled down upon eastern Massachusetts. Last summer a southwest wind swept a horde of brown-tails into Boston. In certain parts of the city the white moths were so thick as to make seeing across the street as difficult as in a driving snowstorm. In the infected districts of the suburbs the stench from the caterpillars which have dropped dead from leaves poisoned by arsenical spraying has frequently been so great as to necessitate disinfecting with lime before the bodies could be shoveled up and carted away by the wheelbarrow full.

Both moths are frequently carried great distances by railroad trains. The gypsy caterpillar spins a long silken web and attaching it to the end of a bough swings in the wind until a passing train picks him up and carries him along. Almost anything moving is likely to catch and carry this caterpillar. In many cases the agent of distribution seems to have been the ubiquitous automobile. The gypsy is dependent upon these human agencies to spread him. Not so the brown-tail, a swarm of whom will rise into the air and, aided by the wind, fly many miles to be drawn to earth at last by some bunch of street lights. A similar attraction leads them to fly into an open car window or the cab of an engine.

The gypsy moth plague is due to the carelessness of Trouvelot, a scientist who lived in Medford, Massachusetts, some years ago. The gypsy is a silk-spinner and Professor Trouvelot had an idea that by crossing him with the ordinary silkworm he could obtain a caterpillar hardy enough to withstand the cold winters. Accordingly he imported a lot from their native European haunts and then carelessly allowed several caterpillars to escape. When they got acclimated to the east winds of Massachusetts the mischief began. It was a case of five hundred caterpillars to each female moth. Soon a commission had to be appointed which expended a million and a half in ten years in a vain effort to exterminate the plague. What the result would have been had not the legislature in a mistaken fit of economy suspended the work, is a matter of speculation. At any rate, in May last indignant public opinion and the openly expressed alarm of experts in

the neighboring states brought about the appointment of another commission. The brown-tail had meanwhile been imported on some rosebushes from Holland.

It is a conservative estimate that over \$1,000,000 will be expended in Massachusetts during the next two years in fighting moths. The state has appropriated directly \$330,000, the cities and towns will be obliged to appropriate as much more at least. This sum of about \$700,000 will be spent mainly in the work of supervision and in ridding the public domain, parks and the like, from moths. Under the law the expense of clearing the moths off private estates must be borne up to one per cent of the value of the land by the owner of it. The increased seriousness of the situation is roughly indicated by the increased expenditure under the new commission as compared with the old: one and a half millions in ten years as against over a million in two years.

The only method so far successful in controlling the plague is that of direct tree-to-tree work. Hundreds of men are going from tree to tree destroying the moths wherever found. Certain habits of the insects aid in this herculean task. The brown-tail caterpillar hatches in the late summer, and as soon as the weather becomes cold, weaves a nest of leaves and silken thread at the end of a bough, into which he crawls and hibernates all winter. These nests are cut off and burnt. During the winter also the eggs of the gypsy, laid in clusters on the trunks of trees, can be killed by painting with a thick coat of crude coal-tar creosote. In the summer effective work can be done by spraying the leaves with a solution of arsenate of lead in the proportion of five pounds of poison to one hundred pounds of water for the brown-tail, and twice that strength for the gypsy.

In their native haunts both moths have been kept in check by parasites. Dr. O. W. Howard, of the Department of Agriculture, has been in Europe this past summer to determine whether or not the European parasite can be acclimatized in the United States. Several thousand parasites of different kinds have been imported and placed in a special observation station at North Saugus, Massachu-

setts. The greatest reliance is being placed upon the tachina fly, a native of Japan, and so called because of the swiftness of its flight. The tachina is a brother of the house fly, although very much larger and covered with bristling hairs. The female fly fastens her eggs to the skin of a caterpillar. When the larvæ hatch they bore their way into the body of their host and live there until full grown, when they begin their process of transformation, thus destroying the life of the caterpillar. The tachina fly is a fast breeder, as many as twenty thousand eggs having been observed on a single specimen. About four hundred healthy flies are under observation at North Saugus. For the comfort of housekeepers it may be added that there is no danger that the tachina will invade the house. He is a true parasite and lives on other insects, particularly caterpillars.

The moths are omniverous pests, especially the gypsy. Fruit and shade trees are suffering alike. In the beautiful natural parks north of Boston, thousands of trees have been killed outright, while thousands more, not yet dead, were as bare of leaves in midsummer as in the dead of winter. The brown-tail has so far exhibited a marked preference for fruit trees, especially the pear. The female chooses the under side of pear leaves as the resting-place for her eggs, and the young caterpillars regard the same leaf as the most succulent of foods. The pine-producing country, New England north of Massachusetts, Canada and parts of the South and West, are sure to be peculiarly heavy sufferers. The pine is three times as sensitive to defoliation as are non-coniferous trees. Three stripings are needed to kill most trees, but one stripping will entirely destroy the pine.

The brown-tail caterpillar is an enemy of man. It sheds its minute, wiry hairs, and these, floating in the air, come into contact with human flesh, producing a painful, itching irritation of the skin. Cases have been reported so serious that the victims, with their faces swollen out of recognition and their eyes closed, were obliged to go to the hospital. The hairs taken into the mouth with the breath or swallowed on the skin of small garden

ture which forms its chief constituent. Not only can this be done with eggs, but milk is now treated in a similar way, and reduced to a white powder, sold in tins. And the beauty of the thing is that both can be kept in this form without deterioration for an indefinite period of time, besides requiring small space for storage and at small expense for packing.

The quality of keeping indefinitely makes these two products promise not only a solace to travelers and campers, but to become important articles in the commissary departments of the armies and navies of the world. One individual can easily carry without inconvenience a supply of nutritious food, in this way, sufficient to last for a long time. Compressed into tablets, the space occupied will be even less.

This feature also will tend to simplify the problem of transportation, for in the desiccation nine-tenths of the weight is lost in the moisture driven off. The dirty-looking and often unsanitary milk-can delivered by the milk train in the early hours of the morning will doubtless in time have entirely disappeared, and the hurried morning calls of the milkman will be but a memory of the past. The grocer's boy will deliver the pound package of milk or egg as he does the sack of flour, and the baker buy a barrel of either as he buys a barrel of sugar.

Desiccated milk and egg are especially adapted to domestic use in cookery and baking, and in the manufacture of certain food products. The milk or egg powder is soluble, and when required for use is reconstituted by the addition of water. Thus liquified they possess all the same properties and food qualities as when fresh. The taste, however, is flat and insipid, so that they are not likely to prove popular for table use instead of the original form, though very satisfactory scrambled egg can be made with the desiccated product. In cookery, candy manufacture, and the like, the taste is of no particular consequence, and the flour of milk and desiccated egg not only is satisfactory, but is so much more convenient that, as in the case of the manufacture of milk chocolate, for example, where a superfluity of moisture prevents the mass from hardening properly, it answers the purpose much better than the fresh product.

Furthermore, except during the warm summer months when hens lay well and cows yield milk freely, the cost is less than that of the fresh product. For during the season of plenty, when the market price is very low, the desiccating plant turns eggs bought at six to ten cents per dozen into egg powder that will compete in six months with eggs selling at retail for forty cents or more a dozen. The summer and winter price of milk does not vary so much as that of eggs, but inasmuch as the milk flour is produced in such places as afford a good supply of fresh milk at a low price, it can be sold in competition with the liquid milk throughout the year at a price considerably lower than the latter, and still yield a good profit to the manufacturer. The baker is one of the largest users of egg and milk flour, not only on account of its convenience and cheapness, but because he is assured of a sufficient supply throughout the year at a fixed price.

The process of manufacture, in the case of both milk and egg, is very simple. The problem is to remove the moisture efficiently and at the same time do it in a perfectly sanitary way. The best process uses a tall shaft, at the top of which is an atomizing apparatus from which the milk or shelled eggs are sprayed by compressed air. As the spray falls slowly down the shaft it is dried out by a strong current of hot air forced in at the bottom. On reaching the bottom of the shaft, the egg is deposited in the form of a yellow powder, and the milk as a white flour. If either the white or the yolk of eggs are desired separately, it is necessary only to separate them in the customary way when breaking the shell, and desiccate them separately.

The ease with which bacteria enter milk and all other albuminous products makes it essential that great care be taken to keep everything about a desiccating plant perfectly clean and sanitary, and since the enactment of the pure-food law this is pretty generally done. Not all manufacturers of the powder product, however, have been always scrupulous to use only fresh eggs and milk. Usually such practice brings its own punishment; for the product has the same characteristics that the stale eggs have in the shells, and it finds no market.

BOOKS AND READING

Two Makers of the Republic

By Shailer Mathews

The simultaneous appearance of the "Reminiscences of Carl Schurz" and a complete but popular edition of the works of Franklin* suggests a series of interesting historical contrasts. It is not merely that Franklin is one of the most notable examples of the founders of the Republic, and Schurz an equally typical representative of those who remade the Constitution, although that in itself would furnish subject matter for the student of constitutional history. Far more significant are the comparisons which suggest themselves as to the growth of political theory and the conduct of practical politics.

Except among a few special scholars, Benjamin Franklin for two generations was chiefly known as a printer, a maker of proverbs, a publisher of an almanac, and the man who caught electricity with a kite. Of late years, however, thanks to the collection of his works by John Bigelow, now supplemented and revised by A. H. Smyth, the study of American history has gone far to place him in his true position. His services to the American colonies long antedated the Revolution. To him possibly more than to any other man of the eighteenth century is to be credited the beginnings of that interest in physical science which, although at first of slow growth, has on the one side given us commercial scientists like Edison and on the other great specialists like Michelson, who this year was given the Nobel prize.

The works of Franklin, however, with their evidence of his catholic interest in the germinating science of his day, show him also as a constructive statesman and public official of the most remarkable sort. It is no secret that his influence in France was one of the great causes that won French aid during the Revolution, and so established the independence of the American colonies. The new edition of his works throws light on his stay in England as the agent of the colonies, and show how strenuously he worked there in the interests of a more generous colonial policy on the part of the mother country. In them, too, it is possible to get a new realization of his share not only in the Revolution on this side of the Atlantic, but also of his remarkable administrative ability in the early days of the new nation. If this popular edition does nothing more than arouse interest in the man who was one of the two or three who really gave America to the world's history, it will have

achieved a great mission. The fact that it is demanded is a gratifying evidence of the growth of interest in genuine rather than legendary colonial history, while the completeness and skill with which Professor Smyth has done his work is an honor to American scholarship.

At first sight there are few points of resemblance between the Pennsylvania patriot and the German revolutionist, but Schurz and Franklin were as one in their love of liberty. Both men also came under the influence of philosophy that became all but a religion. There was in Schurz, however, a capacity for enthusiasm, a passionate idealism and an absence of what, for lack of a better word, we may call canininess which makes him an altogether different if not so judicial a man as Franklin.

In his "Reminiscences" Mr. Schurz brings us down only to the close of 1863, and practically his entire two volumes are given up to those years that preceded the outbreak of the Civil War, and the first two years of that war. It is unfortunate that he did not live to complete his work, and give an account of his life as it influenced those years which followed the war, for it was when the country was fighting its way up from the demoralization of the Civil War period that Schurz rendered his great service. None the less, the two volumes are of great historical value as an exposition of the spirit of young Germans in the age of revolutions, and as a contribution to the history of the development of the crisis of 1861. Mr. Schurz does not write altogether with the impartiality of a Caesar, and in the description of some of the battles, particularly in his relations with General Howard, his writing becomes a rather vivid criticism of others and defense of himself. But the volumes are not fundamentally partisan. They abound in wonderful character sketches, and exhibit, as do few biographies, a sympathy with the great constructive forces which made the new Germany and the new America. If Franklin's work will enable the student of American history to appreciate the loyalty of indigenous patriots like the colonists, these volumes of Schurz's are an equally important monument of that German-American patriotism which has been such a potent, although as yet imperfectly realized, force in the development of the American spirit of the better sort.

Bliss Perry has commemorated the centenary of the poet's birth by "*John Greenleaf Whittier: A Sketch of His Life*" (Houghton, Mifflin, 75 cents net), which is sympathetically written and both inclusive and succinct. The time has come when the disappearance of old antagonisms makes impartiality possible, and one lays the book down

* "Reminiscences of Carl Schurz." Vol. I, 1829-52; Vol. II, 1852-63. New York: The McClure Company. \$4 per volume.

"The Writings of Benjamin Franklin." Collected and edited, with a Life and Introduction by Albert Henry Smyth. New York: The Macmillan Company. Ten volumes, \$15 the set.

with a feeling of personal contact with the old warrior against slavery. Typical poems to the number of twenty-one round off the little volume.

William Knight has collected a series of reminiscences and appreciations from many hands for the "Memorials of Thomas Corwin of the Wandering Scholar." Price, \$1.50 net. The connecting links are his own, but the memorials come from hands as varied as those of Felix Adler, Havelock Ellis, William James, and several of the former students at Harvard. They collectively paint the portrait of a fascinating and delightful personality, a man with an enormous store of learning, an ardent idealism and vitality.

George Edward Wood, one of the great men of letters, wrote a series of essays on the American literature of the past. The essays are collected in a formative volume, "The American Literary Renaissance," published by the University of Chicago Press. The volume is a collection of personal, scholarly, and critical essays on the American literary renaissance. It is a volume of a second volume of the series, "The American Literary Renaissance," published by the University of Chicago Press. The volume is a collection of personal, scholarly, and critical essays on the American literary renaissance. It is a volume of a second volume of the series, "The American Literary Renaissance," published by the University of Chicago Press.

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A biography of the small remembrance is James Harrison Wilson's "The Life of General William Wood." (Harper's, \$3. net). General Wood, known to great editors intimately, and his champion, the great editor, the editor to which he was always subject. The volume covers in particular detail Wood's career during the Civil War, but also contains something of the influence of the Civil War.

A volume of information and informing has been published by the University of Chicago Press, in the "The Life of John Harvard" (Little, Brown, \$2 net), in which the information about the founder of Harvard University is presented. The volume is a collection of personal, scholarly, and critical essays on the American literary renaissance. It is a volume of a second volume of the series, "The American Literary Renaissance," published by the University of Chicago Press.

ing, if not entirely convincing, is the argument to prove that John Harvard's parents met through the kindly offices of William Shakespeare. The book is fully and pertinently illustrated.

History and Travel

Northern Spain. Painted and Described by Edgar T. A. Wigram. London: A. & C. Black, 1906. \$6.

Books on Spain are always of especial interest, and Mr. Wigram's breezy itinerary is no exception to the rule. We may ramble with him on many an unfrequented mountain road, and lodge with him in solitary huts. The narrative of his traveling from Bilbao through Galicia, Asturias, Leon, Old Castile and New, and Navarra, to Pamplona, and so over the Pyrenees, is a sprightly and entertaining chronicle of such mild adventure as is still possible in Europe. Best of all the pictures, seventy-five in number, reproducible for us in exquisite color the fairest sights in any land. The mountain and river views are perhaps the finest, but for distinctively Spanish quality the sketches of city life and church architecture possess for a lover of Spain the most potent charm.

Life in the Homeric Age. By Thomas Day Seymour. Pp. xvi, 704. Macmillan, \$4 net.

For a number of years the world of scholarship has awaited this book of Professor Seymour's. It was worth waiting for. It is one of the most creditable additions made to classical literature by American scholarship. It is valuable not only for the student of Homer, but also for the general historian, the sociologist and student of comparative religion. By an exhaustive study of the Homeric literature Professor Seymour has gathered material with which to describe all forms of social life of the ancient Greeks, and particularly their religion. While it does not use the comparative method, nor attempt any wide description of archaeological results, the book is a vivid and well rounded picture, intelligible to the non-technical reader as well as of the utmost value to the professional investigator.

Miss Katharine Lee Bates made a "literary journey in England" from which the readers of "The Green Green to Land's End" (Crowell, \$1.50 net) will profit. It covers the mother land from Carlisle to the tip of Cornwall, dwelling lovingly in the Lake Country, halting in the manufacturing counties long enough to revive their somewhat slender literary memories, making a pilgrimage of devotion to Oxford, and everywhere bringing into the text reminiscences of famous books and those who have written them. Reproduced photographs of considerable merit serve as illustrations.

Mrs. Roger A. Pryor in "The Birth of the Nation" (Macmillan, \$1.75 net) has given an entertaining narrative of the early history of Virginia, and particularly of John Smith and Pocahontas. The charm of Mrs. Pryor's style is well known, and while her present volume is

hardly to be ranked with histories of a technical sort, it shows careful study and, what is better, a real capacity to set forth the human interest side of American history.

Nothing more authoritative or pleasanter to read has been written about a topic close to us than "*The South Americans*" by Albert Hale (Bobbs-Merrill, \$2.50 net). The necessary maps and statistics are presented in concise form apart from the narrative, which tells of personal experiences and impressions received during a long residence and extended journeys in the Spanish and Portuguese republics. Nothing that a citizen of the United States wishes to know and should know is omitted, and the book is beautified by numerous photographs.

Out of profound knowledge and sympathy Dr. William E. Griffis has written "*The Japanese Nation in Evolution: Steps in the Progress of a Great People*" (Crowell, \$1.25 net), which contains a surprising amount of knowledge in little space. It is a compendious history of the island empire from the moment of authentic annals into the living present, and contains the information that the base and root of the Japanese people is Aryan. This alignment of the farthest East with the West sets in train a series of curious speculations.

Edward Hutton continues his admirable books of travel with "*Florence and the Cities of Northern Tuscany, with Genoa*" (Macmillan, \$2 net), a book agreeably written and sumptuously illustrated, both with reproduced photographs and colored drawings. Though it can not be said to contain anything new, it does set forth a great deal of pleasant information about art and history, dealing with the most interesting period of medieval and modern times for that purpose. It is emphatically a book that makes for culture.

Miss Betham-Edwards writes "*Literary Rambles in France*" (McClurg, \$2.50 net) with the laudable purpose of showing a great many bewildered persons that French literature is something to be prized and treasured, rather than the hideous mess too many have been misled into thinking it. After years of residence in the sister republic she is able to select those spots outside of Paris which are especially endeared to the lovers of French literary art, her itinerary taking the reader far from the beaten path.

Mrs. Lucy Fitch Perkins has written an intimate story of the delights of life in New England—largely for one who visits there—and called it, "*A Book of Joys*" (McClurg, \$1.75 net). It is the "story of a New England summer," passed in a small village where the people are not so crowded that they have worn their human angles off, and in the suburb of a large city to which the kinsfolk have been summoned for a wedding. It is delightfully illustrated by the author, and text and pictures justify the title.

As a thesis for his doctorate, A. J. Fynn, Ph.D., prepared "*The American Indian as a Product of Environment*" (Little, Brown, \$1.50 net), especial reference being made to the Pueblos. It deals with the Indian as uninfluenced by white civilization, considering in successive chapters the various characteristics of government, religion, education, festivals, family life, and similar matters. It contains much valuable information in small space.

A book of altogether unique interest is "*Cradle Tales of Hinduism*," by Margaret E. Noble ("*The Sister Nivedita*"). (Longmans, Green & Co., \$1.60 net.) It tells in luminous, simple English the various stories of the Hindu gods. Mrs. Noble has done for the Hindu literature what Church and Lang have done for Homer. Besides the stories from literature the volume contains folk tales, many of which are not easily found elsewhere. While the author modestly designates the book as one for children, it will be found good reading for all those who want to know more about that great world which worships Krishna and fears Siva.

Economics and Political Science

Hugo R. Meyer formulates a problem that he finds unanswerable in "*Public Ownership and the Telephone in Great Britain*" (Macmillan, \$1.50 net). It appears that the public servants engaged in the British telegraphs have thrown their voting strength latterly to the candidate for Parliament who promises them the most advantages in the way of higher remuneration and better conditions of service, and that there is nothing that can be done about it. It also appears that the telephone has been kept back because it interferes with the governmental monopoly of the telegraphs. Mr. Meyer does not believe that there is a choice of evils, holding that all governmental ownership is wrong, but there is surely something to be said for the other side.

The peril that stalks in bodies of civil servants united for the advancement of their personal interests forms the topic of discussion in Hugo R. Meyer's "*The British State Telegraphs*" (Macmillan, \$1.50 net), which has for its sub-title, "A Study of the Problem of a Large Body of Civil Servants in a Democracy." Professor Meyer makes it plain that the taking over of the telegraph lines in Great Britain by the government has had the advantage of increasing the wages and bettering the terms of service for the employees, largely through their support at the polls of the Parliamentary candidates who will do the most for them. It seems to be a real problem to keep wages down, or to keep them from being increased by such means when the chance comes, and Mr. Meyer has not found the answer.

Kirkup's "*Inquiry into Socialism*" has passed into the third edition, revised and enlarged (Longmans, Green & Co., \$1.40). The value of this book has long been recognized, and the present edition will be welcomed as bringing its discussion down to date. For those who wish a succinct and sympathetic presentation of the essence of Socialism the book will be invaluable. Particularly illuminating is his chapter on current views on Socialism.

The sociologists are fighting back, and Professor Albion W. Small's "*Adam Smith and Modern Sociology*" (University of Chicago Press, \$1.25 net) is nothing more nor less than a demonstration that the founder of political economy now known as "orthodox" has been wholly misinterpreted by his disciples in respect of the moral

element in industrial and commercial life. The book is neither dismal nor dry—a model to the orthodox economists.

Waldo Pondray Warren has gathered from his voluminous newspaper writing a sheaf of winged editorials which he calls "*Thoughts on Business*" (Forbes, \$1.25). It is bright and modern. No boy or man can possibly go wrong in business who takes Mr. Warren's advice—or half of it.

Fiction

For a realistic if not very profound study of the conditions under which women work we would recommend "*The Slave Market*," by Olive Christian Malvery (McClure, Phillips, \$1.50). The author became a flower-girl, a shop-girl and various other sorts of worker and was therefore able to share in the actual experiences of the life she describes. The book contains a number of exceedingly interesting stories and should be read by any person who wishes to appreciate the struggles of the masses of our cities.

It is a genuine pleasure to find that David Graham Phillips in his "*Light-fingered Gentry*" has done a piece of work that is by all odds his best. Mr. Phillips is writing too much, but in "*Light-fingered Gentry*"—an unfortunate title, by the way—there is sincerity and a character drawing that lift the book above the rank of mere "best sellers." The book shows that Mr. Phillips has not yet overcome his besetting inclination toward prolixity and careless writing. But it is not so devoid of literary value as some of his other work. The book confirms our belief that Mr. Phillips is the most striking and unfortunate example of the ruin wrought by commercialized literature. He has elements of strength which, if properly developed, would make him a novelist rather than a clever journalist who writes novels. (Appleton's, \$1.50.)

It is not often that one meets so original a book as "*The Adventurer*," by Lloyd Osbourne. Its very improbability fascinates the reader. Only think of traveling across the prairies of South America in a great ship on wheels, and returning with a cargo of gold! Could Jules Verne have done better than that? (Appleton's, \$1.50.)

Ellis Parker Butler, who will be known to posterity as the author of "*Pigs is Pigs*," has attempted a rather longer flight in "*Kilo*." (McClure, \$1.50.) The book is a collection of humorous stories dealing with one Eliph' Hewitt, a book agent. It will make good reading for people who want entertainment.

Nixon Waterman, following the examples of several Englishmen and of Wallace Irwin and S. E. Kiser among Americans, has written a sequence in slang, entitled "*Sonnets of a Budding Bard*" (Forbes & Co., 75 cents), wherein a small boy tells his and others' joys and sorrows in clever colloquialisms, John A. Williams furnishing numerous illustrations in color.

In "*Mam' Linda*" (Harper's, \$1.50) Will Harben unintentionally apologizes for the interest a clever young southern lawyer takes in seeing that an innocent young negro, son of his sweetheart's old mammy, is not lynched for another

man's fiendish murder. The book is interesting, even exciting, but it is curious to see the honest young fellow given every motive for right doing that ingenuity can devise except the plain desire to do right.

The triviality of serious matrimonial quarrels is brought out in Jane Grosvener Cooke's "*An Interrupted Honeymoon*" (Barnes, \$1.50). Just after the twain are married they separate, assigning no reason whatever. It is likely that they forget why before they fall in love all over again and are really relieved when it occurs to them that they are still married. It is a book rather clever than important.

Knowledge of Washington life in many of its phases appears in Ruth Kimball Gardiner's "*The World and the Woman*" (Barnes, \$1.50), a story in which a mother sacrifices everything, including her own sense of integrity and her right to live, in order to settle her daughter in life. The daughter throws over an elderly Senator to wed a younger man, in somewhat the maternal manner. Nevertheless Mrs. Gardiner keeps her reader's sympathies with the very human pair.

The favorite American story of a rise from poverty is the fundamental theme of Miss Lafayette McLaws' "*The Welding*" (Little, Brown, \$1.50). In it a little Georgia cracker, aided by Alexander Stephens, becomes a page in Congress and eventually a man of note. The story is carried through the war between the states, and many of its noted men and incidents are included. The story is an ambitious and worthy addition to our historical romances.

"*John o' Jamestown*" (McClure, \$1.50) could not be identified as anybody except the doughty Smith in Vaughan Kester's novel of that name, and young Dick Farraday tells the tale of the first settlement of Virginia and of the later coming of Lord de la Warr, with Smith always in the foreground. The old account is well galvanized, and a pretty love story trickles through it, leaving some wonder why John Smith, a hero of romance if ever there was one, has not had his career utilized before.

A most agreeable mixture of semi-respectable Bohemianism and entirely disreputable spiritism appears in Gellert Burgess' "*The Heart Line*" (Bobbs-Merrill, \$1.50). The hero is a palm-reader, to whom enters a real young woman, daughter of a man of wealth and position. She and another real young woman form as alluring a pair as may be found in recent fiction. The young man becomes roused from his ethical torpor through the first girl, and is on the way toward amounting to something. The other girl kills herself—and it is a pity.

"*Comrade John*" (Macmillan, \$1.50) is an exhilarating story by Merwin and Webster, dealing with the characteristic American problem of a brand-new religion. A young architect, the builder of such spectacles as Luna Park, is engaged by the prophet to construct a similar bit of sham for the home of his deluded followers. The girl in whom the architect is interested falls into the prophet's train and is rescued from his clutches in a series of exciting and quite probable events.

Miss Dolores Bacon writes vivaciously and covers many different subjects in her novel "*In High Places*" (Doubleday, Page & Co., \$1.50). With

equal facility it deals with a very foolish wife, high finance, society struggles in New York and the lives of a little German colony of musicians.

Ralph D. Paine sets himself down as the editor of fantastic tales which the title-page describes as "*J. Archibald McKackney (Collector of Whiskers)*," "Being Certain Episodes Taken from the Diary and Notes of that Estimable Gentleman-Student and Now for the First Time Set Forth" (The Outing Co., \$1.25). It deals with an investigator of wealth who discovers, while collecting specimens of whiskers from all over the world, that under the microphone these hirsute adornments yield fundamental notes through which melodies may be played. The fun in collecting instruments for the purpose is almost too broad to be funny at all.

Anything that Kate Douglas Wiggin writes the world wants to read. "*The Old Peabody Pew*" will prove no exception to this general rule (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., \$1.50). It is a simple story, whose charm lies in its portrayal of the actual life in New England. It is beautifully bound and will make an admirable gift book.

John R. Carling writes historical melodrama, with a preference for Russia. His latest romance, "*By Neva's Waters*" (Little, Brown, \$1.50), has the first Alexander for its most prominent historical figure, the hero being an Englishman of the Admirable Crichton type, who honors no less a personage than the Czarina Elizavetta, though unknowingly, with his affections. Failing her, he takes the daughter of the French ambassador. It is a busy and sensational book.

Herbert Quick goes deep into the roots of things in "*The Broken Lance*" (Bobbs-Merrill, \$1.50), attacking the Christian Church in America for allying itself with the powers of darkness in this world rather than preaching the simplicity and self-denial of our Lord. His hero attains the pastorship of a rich and fashionable flock in one of the larger cities of the Middle West and is sailing on to the highest things in his profession when the single-tax doctrines of Henry George win him over to a point of view wholly at variance with that of his congregation. He is driven forth by vile slander, and becomes an agitator. Learning that the world of labor will not listen to a man not of themselves, he descends to some of its most degrading forms and has just attained a position of real influence when he is treacherously slain. It is a book to cause reflection, honestly and earnestly written by a man of affairs and of standing in the circles of reform.

To be a learned, cultivated bachelor uncle living near Boston, and to have three orphaned nieces from Chicago thrust into his placid household, with the actions and interactions resulting, make up Miss Helen Hawes Brown's pleasant story of "*Mr. Tuckerman's Nieces*" (Houghton, Mifflin, \$1.50). It is a tender story, filled with charming sentiment, and humanly old-fashioned from beginning to end.

Warren Cheney's Alaskan novel, "*His Wife*" (Bobbs-Merrill, \$1.50), is a most unusual tale in an equally unusual setting. The characters are all Russian, with a northern mysticism in the situations. In the first chapter a man loses his wife. With aberrant wits, he refuses to admit her death, and wanders away. The means whereby

he won the new wife he brings back and holds so strange a relation to are not disclosed until the last chapter, when it appears that she was the betrothed of his brother, with whom he fought and whom he believed he had slain. The romantic, though somber, book is one that will impress itself upon the memory of any reader.

The reign of the Emperor Andronicus, son to the Emperor John, whom he had deposed and imprisoned, is the period, and Constantinople the scene, of F. Marion Crawford's latest book, "*Arethusa*" (Macmillan, \$1.50). It tells of a beautiful slave, daughter of a noble Venetian family and the property of a noble Venetian gentleman who had taken her into his household after she had voluntarily disposed of her freedom for the sake of keeping alive her foster mother. It is a pleasure to read, and pleasant to remember, the work of a skilful writer in the fulness of his powers.

"*Love of Life*" is a collection of stories by Jack London (Macmillan, \$1.50), dealing with Alaska and the far North. It contains some of the best of London's recent work, and is alive with that savage realism which we have come to associate with the better work of this overwriting author.

Juvenile

Books for the young are numerous and intended for every age and both sexes.

Charles G. Eastman's "*Old Indian Days*" (McClure, \$1.60 net) speaks with authority of the transition of American aborigines after the intrusion of the whites. Several of the stories deal with Indian women, and are told with feeling and comprehension. It is an admirable piece of work.

"*Nina's Carcer*" (Macmillan, \$1.50) is a good story for girls, written by Christina Gowans Whyte, telling of a little English girl with a talent for painting who, befriended by an eminent physician, rises to some understanding of her art and might have gone further if she had not unexpectedly inherited money.

"*Polly Pat's Parish*" (Revell, \$1) is broadly concerned with both rich and poor parishioners, but primarily with Mary Martha, the widowed rector's sixteen-year-old daughter. She is an engaging young person, who fights for her rights and succeeds in reconciling quarrels by doing so.

In Olive Thorne Miller's "*Harry's Runaway*" (Houghton, Mifflin, \$1.25) two boys leave home for the woods in the first chapter, and are brought back nearly starved to death. Thereupon the neighbors come and tell of other runaways they had heard of or experienced. All the stories are interesting, vouched for as true, and should go far in contenting a boy with his home.

Captain Jack Brand has made a book for boys, and one that is good reading for those who love good fighting whatever their age, and called it "*The Free Lances*" (McClure, \$1.50), the first volume of the "*Rough Riders of the Sea*" series. It opens with Drake and his wonderful voyages of piracy and freebooting; it tells of Sir Richard Grenville and the Revenge, it covers the gallantry of American privateers in the War of 1812; in short, it is a stirring tale of gallant deeds from cover to cover.

Mrs. Frances Trego Montgomery has written two books for the holidays, "*Billy Whiskers, Jr., and His Chums*" and "*Santa Claus' Twin Brother*" (Brewer, Barse, each \$1), both with colored pictures by Hugo von Hofsten. The protagonist of the book first named is a black goat, with all the tendency of his well-known ancestor for mischief; the second tells of the wonders some children found in the antarctic regions, which seem not to be as black as they are painted.

Valuable work in the way of familiarizing young people with the Greek hero tales has been done by Alfred J. Church in "*The Iliad for Boys and Girls*," told from Homer in simple language (Macmillan, \$1.50). The stories are well and strongly given, and the volume is gotten up in attractive form, with large type and twelve illustrations in color.

"*Ozma of Oz*" (Reilly, Britton, \$1.25) is one of L. Frank Baum's entertaining stories for children, with Dorothy, the Scarecrow and the Tin Woodman making another graceful bow to the public, the numerous pictures in color being by John R. Neill.

Nature parables told in interesting fashion are to be found in Carl Ewald's "*The Spider and Other Tales*," translated from the Danish by Alexander Teixeira De Mattos (Scribner's, \$1 net). It is to be regretted that from several of them parents and teachers must eliminate certain portions before giving them to children. The entire opening story indeed can not fitly be used in this way, as it is written on too low a moral plane to be healthy reading for youthful minds.

"*Bob the Ranger: A Story of the Fight for Canada*" and "*On the Trail of the Arabs: A Story of Heroic Deeds in Africa*" (Bobbs-Merrill, each \$1.50) are both by Herbert Strang, and have the merit of his numerous stories. The first ends with the great battle on the Plains of Abraham in September, 1759; the other is concerned with the break-up of Tippu Tib's empire of infamy.

McClurg & Co. publish Baring-Gould's collection of "*Nursery Songs and Rhymes*" (\$1.50). The present edition has striking border decorations and illustrations from wood engravings. It will make a capital gift book.

"*Improving Songs for Anxious Children*" (A. C. McClurg & Co., \$1.25 net), by John and Rue Carpenter, is a most engaging successor to their book of last year, "*When Little Boys Sing*." It is arranged and illustrated in much the same manner and will prove equally welcome to both grown-ups and small children.

Miscellaneous

Modern Houses for Town or Country. By William Herbert. New York: Duffield & Co. \$2.

Suggestive papers on domestic architecture and decoration, some of which have previously appeared in periodicals, are here collected in a handsomely illustrated volume. While a few of the houses described are the residences of the very rich, most of them are examples of the city and country homes of families of moderate means. Even the humble suburbanite may get

many ideas for his projected cottage or bungalow from the more elaborate decorative schemes of finer houses. Gardens and landscape effects are treated in connection with country houses; and there are chapters not only on living-rooms, dining-rooms and bedrooms, but even on the humble and neglected kitchen.

Behind the Scenes With the Mediums. By David P. Abbott. Pp. 328. Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Company. \$1.50.

Now and then some of the tricks and devices of fraudulent spiritualistic performances are revealed in the police records or elsewhere. It is seldom that so complete an exposure is made of the methods of mediums as in this volume. Mr. Abbott seems to have devoted much time to discovering the secrets of the "profession" by detective methods and in some cases by purchase. His attitude toward the question of possible genuine spiritualistic manifestations is that every one of the hundreds of cases he has investigated has proved to be fraudulent, but that he is not prepared to deny the existence of supernormal phenomena in this sphere if adequate evidence be presented.

One stands abashed before the incidents collected by Camille Flammarion for his "*Mysterious Psychic Forces*" (Small, Maynard & Co., \$2.50 net). Tables are raised in mid-air without recognized cause and there photographed as if pending from the finger-tips of the hands resting upon them, information of a secret nature is afforded by mediums, and Sir William Crookes' experiments are redescribed. The book centers about the seances given by Eusapia Paladino, an Italian seeress. Resting as the narrative does upon the statements of trained men of science with their eyes opened for fraud, it at least deserves serious reading.

"*Dame Curtsey's Book of Novel Entertainments*," for every day in the year, is a suggestive and helpful little volume, compiled by Ellye Howell Glover (McClurg, \$1 net). It will be found very useful by all who desire to entertain guests or plan for social gatherings. It not only suggests ways of passing a pleasant afternoon or evening, but gives directions for decorations on special occasions.

Sam Walter Foss has written a little better than average verse for his "*Songs of the Average Man*" (Lothrop, Lee & Shepard, \$1.20 net), accommodating his ideas and measures to simple minds and small ambitions. Much of his work is in dialect and in narrative form, and he inculcates plain truths where he is not merely humorous.

"*Seventy Years Young*" (B. W. Huebsch, \$1.20 net) is a most encouraging little attempt to induce people to disregard birthdays, written by Mrs. Emily M. Bishop.

Longmans, Green & Co., have added to their Pocket Library "*The Death of Jason*" (50c), by William Morris. It makes a charming little volume.

"*La Chanson de Roland*," edited, with a modern French translation, by J. Geddes, Ph.D. (Macmillan, ninety cents), is a thoroughly scholarly edition of the old French classic. The introduction contains an elaborate discussion of the historical and textual points involved.

THE CALENDAR OF THE MONTH

United States

Airships.—November 26.—A world's record in aerial navigation broken by Glenn H. Curtiss at Hammondsport, New York, who made a successful ascent in a dirigible airship and remained about four hours in the air. The balloon "All America," carrying seven persons, made a flight of 125 miles from Concord, New Hampshire, in 5½ hours.

Appointments.—December 4.—President Roosevelt nominated Regis H. Post to be governor of Porto Rico.

Casualties.—December 1.—An explosion in the Naomi mine of the United Coal Company, near Fayette City, Pa., caused the death of forty-seven miners.

—December 7.—Four hundred men were killed by an explosion of black damp or methane in mines 6 and 8 of the Consolidation Coal Company at Monongah, West Virginia.

Carnegie Institute.—December 10.—Andrew Carnegie gave \$2,000,000 additional to the endowment of the institution.

Commerce.—December 5.—The National Council of Commerce, representing thirty business leagues from almost as many cities, formally launched in Washington, D. C. Ultimately it will embrace all the leading commercial bodies of the country.

Congress.—December 2.—The sixtieth Congress opened its sessions. Joseph Cannon re-elected speaker of the house.

—December 3.—The President's message read. [See Events.]

Deaths.—November 16.—Moncure Daniel Conway, minister and author, aged seventy-five.

—November 26.—General B. D. Pritchard, who captured Jefferson Davis during the Civil War.

—December 9.—James Henry Stoddart, actor, aged eighty.

Employers' Liability.—December 4.—The employers' liability law declared unconstitutional by Circuit Judge Watts Parker at Lexington, Kentucky, in a suit against the Chesapeake & Ohio Railroad.

Finance.—November 15.—The Chicago Clearing House issued checks in small denominations to meet the demand for currency, amounting to \$200,000.

—November 17.—President Roosevelt instructed Secretary Cortelyou to issue \$50,000,000 of Panama canal bonds bearing interest at 2 per cent per annum, and \$100,000,000 of 3 per cent interest-bearing government notes.

—November 22.—A conference relating to the currency situation and the means to be taken for immediate and permanent relief, held at the White House between the President and Messrs. J. Pierpont Morgan and George F. Baker, president of the First National Bank of New York.

A previous conference was held between the two last named and Secretary Cortelyou. . . . The First National Bank of Globe, Arizona, with deposits of \$750,000, was dropped from the Clearing-house Association.

—December 5.—The National Bank of Commerce, the second largest financial institution in Kansas City, with \$16,942,694 in deposits, closed its doors, although perfectly solvent. If given time, it can pay all. Three smaller banks connected with it also closed.

Insurance.—December 2.—James Hazen Hyde, formerly in control of the Equitable Life Assurance Society of New York, offered to make restitution to the company amounting to \$1,000,000 provided all suits against him be dropped.

Jamestown Exposition.—December 4.—The company's affairs taken in charge of the United States District Court, which will appoint receivers to administer its business. Liabilities amount to about \$2,000,000.

Labor.—November 13.—Large numbers of men laid off by various manufacturing concerns and railroads.

—November 21.—Ten thousand men employed on the Pacific Coast extension of the Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul Railroad had their wages reduced twenty-five cents a day and were notified of a similar reduction on December 1. Some Massachusetts and Texas firms shut down.

—November 22.—Cement plants at Bedford, Indiana, closed down and the force in the stone quarries was reduced. . . . Foreign laborers returning to Europe in large numbers, some 25,000 leaving New York each week, although steerage rates have been raised from \$21 to \$33.

—November 25.—Factories and mills in New England which closed down recently, resuming operations. Cotton and woolen mills running on a seventy-five per cent basis. Furnaces blown out in Ohio and Pennsylvania will be fired up in a week or ten days. . . . An injunction issued by Judge Belden in the Circuit Court at Kenosha, Wisconsin, served on labor unions having a membership of 1,000. It restrains from picketing and enjoins from interference at boarding-houses and from boycotting grocery and supply houses furnishing goods to nonunionists.

—November 30.—Estimated that 50,000 steerage passengers sailed for Europe in the week ending to-day.

—November 27.—Iron works in Youngstown, Ohio and Pittsburg resumed work with full forces. The Carnegie Steel Works and Steel Tube firm shut down. Construction work resumed on the Harriman railroads and thousands of men reemployed.

—December 4.—Goldfield, Nevada, appealed to the national government for protection on account of conflict between striking miners and townspeople. Mine owners demanded that Western Federation of Miners' agitators be driven out.

when engaged in interstate commerce. The case was that of the Atlantic Coast Line Railroad against the Board of Railroad Commissioners of South Carolina.

Steamship Record.—December 5.—The Cunard steamer *Mauretania* established a new east-bound transatlantic record, the time from Sandy Hook to Daunt's Rock, Queenstown, being four days, twenty-two hours and twenty-nine minutes, beating the *Lusitania* by twenty-one minutes.

Trans-Mississippi Commercial Congress.—November 19.—Over 1,500 delegates present at opening of Congress at Muskogee, Oklahoma.

Waterways.—November 20.—Delegates from fifteen Atlantic coast states organized at Philadelphia the Atlantic Deeper-Waterways Association.

—December 4.—The Rivers and Harbors Congress convention in session at Washington, D. C.

Cuba

Census.—November 24.—The census completed, undertaken for purpose of registering persons entitled to electoral franchise.

Labor.—November 22.—Members of the executive committee of the Federation of Labor and others taking part in the strike, arrested to the number of 205, in Havana, by order of Judge Miyeres.

Salvador

Amnesty and Guaranties.—November 20.—The government issued a decree granting amnesty to political prisoners and allowing the return of exiles. President Figueroa restored constitutional guaranties.

Argentina

Death.—December 4.—General Luis Saens Pena, ex-President of the Republic, aged seventy-seven.

British Empire

Chartreuse.—December 11.—The Appeal Court of England unanimously upheld the exclusive right of the Carthusian monks to the use of the word "Chartreuse" in Great Britain, as describing the famous liquor.

Deaths.—November 12.—Sir Lewis Morris, Welsh poet, aged seventy-four.

—November 18.—Admiral Sir Francis Leopold McClintock, arctic explorer.

Florence Nightingale.—November 29.—King Edward bestowed the Order of Merit upon Florence Nightingale, who is the first woman to receive this distinction. Only nineteen men have received it since it was founded in 1902.

India

Labor.—November 20.—Traffic on the East Indian Railway, 2,165 miles long, paralyzed by a strike on account of overwork and poor pay. Six thousand passengers stranded at Asansol, Bengal, where the strikers threatened violence.

Belgium

Congo.—November 28.—The plenipotentiaries of Belgium and the Congo Independent State signed the treaty annexing the latter to Belgium.

—December 5.—The first part of the treaty was made public. King Leopold's private domain is included in the cession. [See Events.]

France

Labor.—November 21.—The Havilands, at Limoges, dismissed 200 workmen and stopped enlarging their factory because of the financial situation in America, as a large part of their porcelain product goes there.

Monaco.—November 29.—Fire destroyed a large portion of the old palace of the Prince of Monaco.

Spain

Casualty.—November 25.—By the collapse of a bridge near Cambrils as an express train was crossing it from Valencia to Barcelona, sixteen persons killed and thirty injured.

Portugal

Civil Conflict.—November 21.—A plot against the dictatorship discovered in Lisbon. Over 700 bombs seized and eighty arrests made by police. All public meetings forbidden. Several newspapers suppressed and others prosecuted for attacks upon the king and the papal nuncio.

—November 25.—The government proclaimed the establishment of a special tribunal empowered to punish summarily political offenders. The magistrate appointed to preside over this court resigned as soon as named.

—December 2.—The opposition parties except the Republicans, sued for peace, offering to furnish the necessary majority in the cortes to ratify the dictatorial decrees if Premier Franco would hold the elections immediately.

—December 4.—Premier Franco refused to compromise with the opposition.

Italy

Modernism.—November 20.—A statement from the Pope, published in the *Osservatore Romano*, the organ of the vatican, declared that the penalty of excommunication shall be visited on those who contradict or oppose the syllabus or the encyclical against modernism.

Switzerland

Simplon Tunnel.—December 10.—The state council approved plans for a second Simplon Tunnel through the Alps by the administration of the federal railways.

German Empire

Finance.—November 21.—The firm of J. F. C. Moeller, in Hamburg, suspended, with liabilities estimated at \$1,750,000 to \$2,000,000; assets, \$500,000. Leading Hamburg and other German and English banks involved.

Ministerial Crisis.—December 4.—Chancellor von Buelow threatened to resign unless the coalition would give him a majority in the reichstag. The National Liberals and all the parliamentary parties thereupon met in caucus and voted to support the government. This action is considered almost revolutionary in governmental methods.

Scandal.—November 28.—The sitting of the reichstag was notable for the energetic defense of the Emperor and the army and himself, made

by Chancellor von Buelow, with reference to the recent court scandal. Prince Eulenburg requested the state's attorney to bring action for slander against Maximilian Harden. The attorney decided to do so.

Austria-Hungary

Amnesty.—November 25.—In recognition of the commencement of the sixtieth year of his reign, Emperor Francis Joseph issued a decree of military amnesty, granting free pardon and the resumption of civil rights to all deserters, fugitives and evaders of military service at home and abroad.

Religious Conflict.—December 4.—Forty persons killed and 100 wounded in a conflict between Catholics and Mohammedans at Djakovo, Croatia.

Sweden

Cabinet.—December 4.—Dissensions resulted in three ministers resigning their portfolios: Tingssten, of war; Juhlin, of the interior, and Dyrssen, of marine. Count Hugo Hamilton sworn in as minister of the interior, and Count Ehrensvaerd as minister of marine. Premier Lindman took temporary charge of the war office.

King's Death.—December 8.—Oscar II., aged seventy-eight. The Crown Prince Oscar Gustav Adolphe succeeded to the throne under title of Gustav V.

Nobel Prizes.—December 10.—The prize for chemistry awarded to Sir William Crookes, of London, discoverer of thallium and inventor of the radiometer. The literary award goes to Rudyard Kipling. Professor Albert A. Michelson, head of the department of physics in the University of Chicago, awarded the prize for physics, on account of his work in measuring the velocity of light. The medical award went to Dr. Charles L. A. Laveran, of Paris, and the chemistry prize to Professor Edouard Buchner, of the University of Berlin. The peace prize is equally divided between Ernesto Teodoro Moneta, of Italy, and Louis Renault, of France.

Russian Empire

Douma.—November 14.—The third parliament opened in the Tauride Palace, St. Petersburg, in the presence of Premier Stolypin and the cabinet, by M. Golubeff, vice-president of the council of the empire. M. Khomyakoff, Octoberist, elected president of the house.

—November 26.—The douma, by a vote of 112 to 246, decreed that the title "autocrat" borne by the Russian Emperors for centuries, is no longer tenable, and then adopted a reply to the address from the throne. Monarchists in opposition withdrew from the chamber.

—November 29.—Premier Stolypin emphasized the autocratic principle in a ministerial declaration before the douma.

—December 5.—Thirty-seven members of the second douma arraigned on charges of high trea-

son, and seventeen soldiers and civilians on the same charges. In sympathy 50,000 mill hands employed in St. Petersburg walked out on a one-day strike.

Military Conviction.—November 20.—A special military court trying twenty-seven men of the Eleventh Nicholas I. Regiment on charges of mutiny and insubordination, sentenced three men, who had destroyed a picture of Emperor Nicholas, to be at once shot to death, banished to the mines for life nine others, for ten years, twelve, and acquitted the remainder.

Stoessel.—December 10.—Lieutenant-General Stoessel placed on trial for surrender of Port Arthur.

Japan

Ambassador.—December 5.—The government appointed Baron Kogoro Takahira to succeed Viscount Aoki at Washington, D. C.

Formosa

Revolt.—December 10.—The Chinese mercenaries employed by the Japanese in fighting the insurgents, revolted, captured the local gendarmerie at Hokupo, killed the gendarmes and their families, burned the government offices and massacred sixty-three Japanese.

Korea

Crown Prince.—December 5.—The Crown Prince left Seoul for Japan, where he goes to complete his education, a plan approved by the nation.

Morocco

Conflict.—November 25.—Fierce battle between French troops and 10,000 Benis Nassen tribesmen who had attacked the French camp. Eight Frenchmen killed and 1,200 tribesmen.

—November 26.—Five tribes joined the Benis Nassen tribesmen in fighting the French troops.

—November 28.—Part of the Moroccan army invaded Algeria and fierce fighting with the garrison at Bab-el-Rassa resulted. The French force was inadequate to cope with the enemy until aided by reserves from Oudja and Nemours. The French lost eleven killed and fifteen wounded. The Moors left eighty dead on the field.

—November 29.—Benis Nassen tribesmen numbering 2,500 attacked the French outposts at Adjerondkiss, but eventually retreated before heavy artillery fire.

—December 6.—General Liautey, commanding the French flying column in Algeria, reported he had destroyed the camp of Marabout Bouthick, one of the leaders of the Benis Nassen revolt, who proclaimed a holy war on the frontier. Mulai Hafid, the "southern sultan," has taken Masagan and is moving on Casablanca.

—December 10.—The French and Spanish missions to the Moroccan Government concluded negotiations. [See Events.]

The World To-Day

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In Days of Hesitation

IT is now several months since Wall Street undertook to cure a case of financial Grip with remedies that all but produced heart-failure. Since then the country has been promising itself a speedy recovery of normal conditions. Convalescence has indeed begun, but it is not as rapid as some of the optimists expected.

Banks have been retiring their clearing-house certificates, mills and factories have reopened, country banks have begun to release the cash they drew from city banks; but the great currents of trade have not yet acquired the momentum of the past.

In so far as this relates merely to the transactions of the Stock Exchange, there is little complaint to be heard. But we may as well face the fact that our troubles are not merely those of currency, and, however much they may be alleviated, are not to be cured by increasing the volume of currency. Financial difficulties were the acute symptom of a world-wide economic reorganization.

Prosperity always begets a new debtor class, just as it makes new recruits for the lending class. A few years ago, for instance, there was small opportunity for placing farm loans. Now many farmers have sold their farms and have gone to live in the small towns, while the new owners are borrowing both to pay for the farms and to purchase machinery.

We can hardly expect that the business world will return to normal conditions until there is a readjustment throughout its entire extent. For the man who was forced to expand against his will, this period of readjustment is not likely to bring serious results. His very objection to exploiting prosperity will have proved a blessing.

But it will take time for the reckless expansionists to readjust themselves.

There will be more or less distress on the part of those who have been living as if the feverish prosperity of the last few years was excessive health. The penalties of extravagance must be met by the world at large, whether that extravagance took the form of rebuilding factories that did not need rebuilding, mortgaging one's house to buy an automobile, or buying unneeded furniture on installments.

But after a man has thus adjusted himself to these unattractive facts there remains another duty—confident hope. In those sections of the country where the raw material of wealth is produced, there is, and there will be no serious distress. We can see to-day as never before how true have been those prophets who have declared that to the farmers the country is to look for financial stability.

Fifteen years ago a situation such as we see to-day would have given rise to a new populist movement. So far as can be seen there is no evidence of radicalism. We face a presidential year with no great issue before us except that of whether we shall maintain the policy of President Roosevelt—a policy that meets with the approval of practically every man in the country except those who have overexploited their borrowing power.

It is a moment of hesitation, but not a moment of despondency. It is a moment that suggests reaction, but only to those who are the manipulators rather than the actual purchasers of wealth, whether they be farmers or manufacturers.

Reasonable consideration, caution that does not border on timidity, sensible rather than extravagant expenditures, a decrease in our financial self-consciousness, will inevitably bring about the reestablishment of normal conditions.

In a word, "Sit tight and trust the horse!"

EVENTS OF THE MONTH

Foreign Affairs

Of importance second only to that of The Hague, may be reckoned the peace conference which closed

at Washington in the middle of December of Central America: Costa Rica, Nicaragua, were there representatives of their gathering in their history. No treaties were signed by and now await ratifications of the conference for unification and harmony as one of the most important steps in the preparation for the fusion of the Central American peoples into one.

Provision has been made for the following: The Honduras — troops of each country are permitted to cross the frontier; a system of extradition; prevent one republic from being ground for a reason; the development of a system of higher education; a Central American union; the harmonious duties and the building of a Central-American railroad to facilitate intercourse between the states.

Recognizing also that for the furtherance of harmony, there must be some central authority for uniform legislation, provision is made for regular and automatic meetings of the conference. Commissions are to be appointed by each government to consider economic and fiscal matters which may be made uniform in Central America and delegates are to be appointed for a common conference to convene on the first day of the following January. The framing of laws affecting the common interests of the states will be the task

of this conference and those which are to succeed it each year.

But valuable as these provisions are for the future growth and development of the states, the most important action of the conference would seem to be the establishment of a permanent judicial court for the settlement of controversies between any of the Central American states. It is desired that the court shall represent "the national conscience of Central America." To it the various governments are to submit all points of difference between each other. Each government is to name a judge for a term of five years, at an annual salary of \$8,000. Three judges must agree in a final decision on any case. For the present this "Central American Court of Justice," as it is named, will sit

A Permanent Peace Court

ANOTHER JAPANESE LOVE LETTER TO JOHN BULL

The Big Fellow—"Very interesting! I can't read the language, but no doubt it's something affectionate." Bradley, in the Chicago Daily News

now seems assured. It remains to be seen whether it can be floated on the basis of the road's present capitalization.

General industrial conditions have measurably improved with the opening of the new year, and many establishments which had shut down in December are now working on full or part time. The banks have practically canceled their clearing-house certificates, and have resumed payment in currency. There have been a considerable number of commercial failures, but on the whole it would seem as if the country was adjusting itself to new conditions. There are those who insist that the house-cleaning to which the banks have been subjected will be followed by similarly severe treatment in commercial circles. There are, however, no indications of such a process at the time of writing, but on the contrary, indications of a renewal of business activity. The country is to be congratulated that, although it faces a presidential campaign, there is no indication of any such radicalism as terrified the commercial world in 1896. The farmers are growing conservative, except where the trusts are concerned, and the banks have shown themselves masters of their situation.

The administration had its innings regarding the financial situation when Secretary Taft spoke in Boston before the Merchants' Association. His address was worthy both of the speaker's past and of his very probable future. It was, on the one side, a mustering of the facts which characterize the financial world at large, and on the other hand, a sensible prophecy as to the future. He argued that the causes of the recent panic were the almost universal waste of loanable capital in war and in extravagance, as well as its absorption in great business expansion. He gave due credit to the shock given confidence in financial operations by the exposure of the methods of insurance and railroad companies, as well as individual financiers. Grounds for his belief that the country will recover are three: the gold standard, the generally healthy conditions of railroad finance, and the favorable balance of trade. He

ought to have added good harvests and general agricultural prosperity.

It is time that credit be given the rank and file of dealers in bonds and other investments. They have consistently and persistently urged their clients to invest in securities which just now are low. The bond houses are thus among the conservative influences which are tiding over the present situation. The same must be said for such great corporations as the United States Steel Company. In the midst of the criticism which properly has fallen on the methods of financiering of some of the great corporations, simple justice demands recognition of the fact that the United States Steel Company has kept the steel market from demoralization. So far from being, as in previous periods of financial stringency, a menace to commercial stability, steel has been one of the potent forces preventing a general collapse of prices.

A rather interesting situation has grown up at Goldfield, Nevada. Goldfield, as everybody knows, is a mining town, which, in an impossible region, has sprung into prominence because of the discoveries of gold in the neighboring mountains. It has already been the site of one fierce struggle between organized labor and the mine owners. When another strike was in operation Governor Sparks of Nevada became apprehensive and called on the President for troops. This appeal was, however, not justified by any act of violence committed, but was due to what seemed to the Governor and the mining corporations the certainty that the United States troops alone could prevent disturbance. The President yielded to the appeal, but found that the state was doing nothing on its part. The legislature was not summoned to meet the situation, and local authorities had apparently done little to guarantee order. After the troops had been in Goldfield for a number of days President Roosevelt notified Governor Sparks that they would be withdrawn if he did not assemble the legislature and take necessary steps to maintain order. At the time of writing the legislature has not acted, but the country at large, if it gives

Unnoticed
Factors of
Prosperity

Signs of
Better Times

Secretary Taft
on the Finan-
cial Situation

Shall the
Soldier Become
a Policeman?

THE BENNINGTON MONUMENT

Erected in the military cemetery on Point Loma, San Diego, California, by the Pacific squadron in memory of the sixty-seven men who lost their lives by the explosion of a boiler on the gunboat Bennington in San Diego harbor on July 31, 1905.

But the administration is not to be discouraged. On January 7 Senator Knox introduced into the Senate a bill which is expected to meet the objections of the older law rejected by the Supreme Court. It limits the Act to common carriers, particularly the railroads. It is to be hoped that Senator Knox will maintain his reputation as a constitutional lawyer, and make it possible for the United States to care for men engaged in interstate commerce. The country at large would be willing to have the law stretched that much.

In this connection we can not help emphasizing once more the need of compulsory industrial insurance. Organized labor is still suspicious of laws providing for such insurance, but it is hardly to be expected that such objections will last indefinitely. At the present time various states have commissions studying this highly important matter, that of Illinois having done particularly faithful work during the past year. It is devoutly to be hoped that the time is coming when every employee in manufacturing institutions and on the railroads will be at least



The dearth of good comedy at the present hour has made "The Man From

**Comedies of
American
Life**

Home," by Booth Tarkington and Leon Wilson, loom up like something

lloom up like something
aken to a brilliant achievement. Its clean
little plot, filled with a universal tender-
ness and sympathy, its chivalry, its cos-
mopolitanism, its apt, well-turned lines
have made it a well-deserved success.
Mr. T. Hodge has created in the title
character a heart-warming American character,
simple and homely, but welded in iron

In "The Land of Dollars," by A. B. Ezra Kendall has succeeded in an adequate vehicle. This is a novel that failed, but has been rewarded with some measure of success. It is a novel of the type known as "The Land of Dollars," and is a novel of the type known as "The Land of Dollars."

**"Living
Portraits"**

Children's Convalescent Home. A collection of well-known society ladies planned and carried into execution this happy form of entertainment, which consisted of exact reproductions of the portraits by Elizabeth and Frederick Clay Barker, which were displayed on the lawns of the grounds of the Children's Convalescent Home, Frederick City, Baltimore. The names and details of the artists, and the names arranged by Robert Barker, Esq., of the Maryland State House, are given in the following list:

of the Bible purchased a year ago by Mr. Charles R. Freer of Detroit. The exact date of these manuscripts is not known, but they are undoubtedly prior to the Mohammedan period. The most interesting element in them was the addition to the Gospel of Mark inserted between the fourteenth and fifteenth verses:

Mark xvi, 14a—"And they answered, saying that this age of unrighteousness and unbelief is under the power of Satan, who does not permit the things which are made impure by the (evil) spirits to comprehend the truth of God (and) his power. 'For this reason, reveal thy righteousness now,' they said to Christ; and Christ said to them, 'The limit of the years of the power of Satan has been fulfilled, but other terrible things are at hand, and I was delivered unto death on behalf of those who sinned in order that they may return to the truth and sin no more, to the end that they may inherit the spiritual indestructible glory of righteousness (which) is in heaven.'"

Some little sensation was aroused by the newspaper reporters insisting that these were genuine sayings of Christ. There is no probability that such is the case. Any thorough student of the New Testament and early Christian literature will immediately recognize in them an illustration of the tendency, widespread in the early church, to coin sayings of Jesus. Such an estimate is made all but certain in view of the fact that the insertion is in what is now known to be a late edition to the Gospel of Mark made by Aristion. The interest which was shown in Professor Sanders' paper is another illustration that the Christian world is profoundly concerned with any saying that may even conjecturally be referred to Jesus.

In his conflict with "modernism" Pope Pius X. has gone further than any of his immediate predecessors. On Christmas eve he issued an edict pronouncing the greater excommunication against every one concerned in the production of the monthly review *Il Rinnovamento*, published in Milan. Cardinal Ferrari, archbishop of Milan, was ordered to publish the edict from the pulpit of the Cathedral in that city, an action unprecedented in the history of that historic edifice. The contributors and subscribers, as well as the proprietors, editors and printers, are included in the action. The

penalty is one which has been rarely imposed in modern times. It deprives those under its ban of Christian burial and relieves the faithful of all duties in regard to the bodies and souls of those denounced, whether they be alive or dead. *Il Rinnovamento* is a high-class periodical of a scientific character. It is not antagonistic to religion, but it decidedly opposes the policy of the Vatican. Those controlling it have responded to the papal decree by an announcement of their intention to continue firm but respectful resistance to this policy which, they assert, is destructive of liberty and the right of research.

The separation of Church and State in France has been finally effected by the passage of the bill transferring to the State departments and communes all the property forfeited by the Church. It was passed by a vote of 354 to 177. There was opposition to the clause providing that funds given for masses and other similar purposes should be diverted to the support of public charities, but M. Briand argued that the Church could have retained such funds if it had complied with the law by establishing cultural associations. The State has not acquired any large amount of property, for the suppressed orders carried "almost all their fortune with them to foreign countries, raising money on their real property to such an extent as to leave an important deficit, and diminishing its value by every means, including an unprecedented abuse of procedure." The City of Paris will have to expend large amounts to keep the churches in repair. Among the good results achieved by the separation is the publicity with which all religious transactions are now carried on, laymen being given a large share in the financial administration of the church organizations. Several bishops report that spiritually their dioceses have lost nothing by the separation. In some cases the number of candidates for the priesthood has increased, and progress is evident in various directions. The attempt to form a Catholic party has been rejected by the bishops and a majority of Catholics who occupy positions of authority.

with the residents through the window gratings.

American influence has, however, brought about some important changes in Cuban customs and notably in the abolition of the bull-ring and the cock-pit, which used to be the chief Sunday attrac-

some cases vehicles may only traverse them in one direction, as the signs *subida* and *baja* at their entrances indicate. The buildings in this section are packed close and the population crowded to an extent that is not exceeded in Whitechapel or the Quartier Latin. There is no city in

A BAND CONCERT AT THE MALECON, HAVANA

Morro Castle is seen across the harbor

tions of the populace. Not a few of the better class of Havanese desire the same fate for Jai Alai and would rejoice to see the Frontón closed forever. High and low wager immoderately on this game and many stories of ruined reputations and wrecked businesses are connected with it. Every race has its prevailing vice and its comparative freedom from others. The Cubans are incurable gamblers, but drunkenness is virtually unknown among them. Both sexes in Havana spend a great deal of time in the numerous open-air cafés, but they drink, for the most part, non-alcoholic, fruity beverages, of which there are an extensive variety peculiar to the country.

The portion of Havana that lies about the harbor, the old town, was *intramuros* before the walls were razed, a sacrifice of the picturesque to the sanitary. The narrow streets still remain, so narrow that in

America of two hundred thousand inhabitants that covers so small an area as does Havana.

The Havana residence is a flat-roofed, heavy structure with barred windows, twelve or sixteen feet in height, and massive doors. Its forbidding aspect is somewhat alleviated by the fact that, except when the slatted shutters are closed to exclude the sun, the passer-by may have a free view of the occupants in the living rooms, or through the open doors, see them enjoying the air in the bowery of the patio. The interiors of the houses are bare, but this is a wise concession to hygiene made in all tropical countries. It is less easy to account for the custom of placing in the reception room two precise rows of chairs facing one another, to disturb the alignment of which is distinctly bad form.

There are along the Prado many hand-

natives. On the central uplands many of our people are doing hard work, while enjoying unwonted freedom from illness. Few, if any, countries in the world can boast a better climate.

With the possible exception of Java, there is nowhere in the world a similar area of such extreme fertility as Cuba. The island is covered with variegated verdure displayed in undulating prairie or virgin forest. Only about the southern coast of Oriente is the country markedly broken and rugged, and here are deposits of copper, iron and other minerals that, in all likelihood, have hardly been tapped. But a small proportion of the land is as yet turned to practical account and there is no doubt that this territory, no larger than England, might, under favorable conditions of government and development, support a happy and prosperous population of twenty-five million souls.

The charm of the scenery lies largely in the diversity of color. Here are vast rolling fields of dark-green tobacco; here miles of bright sugar cane, interspersed with patches of fresh-turned, rich red earth. The emerald tints of pasture grass relieve the burnt bronze of the pineapple plantation and contrast with the deeper tones of the fruit orchards. The predominant feature of the landscape is the royal palm, Cuba's pride. Its stately, silver-gray boles, topped by graceful plumes, rise on every hand to a height of one hundred or more feet. Here they cluster in a grove with outstanding sentinels; there, run in orderly ranks along some road, or marking the boundaries of a great estate. The monarch of the Cuban plains affords but scanty shade; that must be looked for from the ceiba and other spreading trees, of which there are many varieties. The native, however, finds numerous important uses for the palm. It furnishes the material for the construction of the peasant's shack, and the awning of his cart; it roofs enormous tobacco barns and encases the bales of leaves.

If the Cuban authorities are wise, they will conserve their forests—the greater part of which are public property—for they are the life of the numberless streams that water the prolific prairie sloping to the sea on either side of the island. Cuba has agricultural resources capable of comfortably supporting a rural population of

fifteen million and she can well afford to treat her timber conservatively.

With the recent extension of railroad facilities, tourists in general have begun to extend their travel beyond the neighborhood of Havana, and they are learning that the provinces offer even greater attractions than the capital. All the principal cities are picturesque and interesting, and each has distinctly individual characteristics. The hotel accommodations are seldom as good as they should be, but the traveler will not suffer actual discomfort anywhere. In every place one encounters Americans, with an occasional Spaniard, Canadian, or Britisher, who are spying out this land of promise and quietly picking up desirable tracts of it.

The entire central ridge presents an exceptionally attractive field to the land prospector. The climate is salubrious, the soil passing rich and the transportation facilities good, with promise of further improvement in the near future. Our people have put many millions into Cuban real estate. Estimates as to the amount vary, but probably it is not far short of \$75,000,000. About twenty thousand individuals are interested in these investments, which represent property varying in extent from a single *caballeria* to thousands of acres. The acre-price of large tracts is surprisingly low, but small blocks of the best lands in the island, except for the favored tobacco region, can be had for less than \$10 an acre, cleared and contiguous to a railroad.

There are many colonies of Americans in the country, generally engaged in the cultivation of fruit, which is a fast expanding industry. They are living under comfortable conditions and making money, with excellent prospects for the future as the country about them develops. The life is an easy one and Cuba is one of the few places to which a man advanced in years, and with but moderate capital, can emigrate with any chance of success. I have met several who came here when well toward sixty, and one or two who had passed that age. Some of these are performing as much physical labor as they would be capable of in the States, and here it is often sufficient to secure a comfortable livelihood.

The anticipated revival of coffee culture will afford attractive opportunities for

men of limited means and physical capacity, and so with viniculture. Spain, out of solicitude for her home industry, forbade the cultivation of grapes, but some that were "grown under a cassock" demonstrated that the fruit would thrive in Cuba. A large home market exists for light wines and a demand for them might readily be created in our eastern States.

To the young man with brains and discernment, Cuba offers a peculiarly promising field. The country is in the infancy of its development and he who grows up with it can not fail of ample opportunities for a successful business career in one of the great variety of industries which the next decade will see expanded or incepted. The instability of political conditions has been a deterrent to many who might otherwise have settled in Cuba, but I base the foregoing statement on a conviction that the United States' control over the island will be indefinitely continued, if it is not permanently established within the next few years.

It would be difficult to exaggerate the productiveness of the soil of Cuba. The peasant scratches it with his rude plow, consisting of a crooked limb from a tree, drawn by oxen, and gets bounteous crops without further trouble. Preparatory to the first planting of an extensive tract, the ground is burnt over and the ashes left upon it. When the earth has been well moistened by the rains, holes are punched in it with the *jan*, and into them is put sugar cane, banana shoots, corn seeds, or what not, and the harvest is awaited. A crop needs practically no attention while growing, and sugar requires to be set only once in seven years.

One of the chief sources of the labor difficulty lies in the fact that between harvests the planter needs but little help and is, therefore, obliged to pay higher wages for his temporary hands than the service would command if he could employ them by the year, or if there was any other industry in the locality in which they might engage meanwhile. The laborer devotes his spare time to the cultivation of a patch of his own and thus becomes more or less independent of the employer. The Cuban peasant is naturally inclined to be independent and does not readily respond

to the market demand for wage-earners. When he works for another, he prefers to do it on the contract basis. The result of all this is constant variation in wages and a general insufficiency of labor supply. The labor situation is, not excepting political conditions, the greatest obstruction to the rapid advancement of the island. At present it is inadequate to the requirements of the already established industries and retards the further development of the vast agricultural resources of the country. Ultimately, this problem will be solved, no doubt, by immigration from southern Europe.

There are no zones of specific production, as in most countries. The various crops may be grown in almost any part of the island. The best tobacco lands are in Pinar del Rio, but good leaf is raised at many other widely scattered points. Draw a line from Caibarien to Cienfuegos and another from Matanzas to Batabaño. At least two-thirds of the active sugar plantations lie within the boundaries indicated, but some of the largest are far away from this central district, as the Santa Lucia, near Gibara, and five million additional acres might easily be put under cane. So with the wide variety of fruits and vegetables that Cuba produces. They are cultivable all over the island and many of them grow wild.

The most promising section, if one may make distinction where almost every section is abundantly rich, is the region that has lately been opened up by the Cuba Company's railroad, which runs along the backbone of the island from the city of Santa Clara to the middle of the province of Oriente. Already extensive improvements have taken place in this territory, which a few years ago was almost uninhabited. Riding over the line, one passes frequent clearings and great sugar plantations with their modern mills, in some cases affording employment to five or six thousand persons. It is the intention of the company to tap the rich valleys on either side of the road, with branch lines. An offshoot now connects with the new town of Antilla, situated at the fine harbor of Nipe Bay. This is destined to become a large city and one of the chief ports of Cuba.

COLONIALISM

HOW COULD THE UNITED STATES, IF NECESSARY, GIVE UP ITS COLONIES?

BY

WILLIAM JENNINGS BRYAN

This important article by Mr. Bryan is one of a series of discussions of our colonial policy. In an early number President Harry Pratt Judson, of the University of Chicago, will discuss the topic of Mr. Bryan's paper from another point of view. Among other contributors are: H. P. Willis, Alleyne Ireland, Richmond Pearson Hobson, and Professor Paul Reinsch.

THE WORLD TO-DAY submits five subjects, as follows: Can the United States afford colonies? Can the United States administer colonies? Can the United States defend colonies? Can the United States Americanize colonies? and How could the United States, if necessary, give up its colonies? and I am asked to select one of the subjects. I prefer the last because it is the most practical. The others call for the discussion of subjects which are only pertinent after we decide that colonialism is consistent with the principles of a republic and, therefore, to be considered from an American standpoint. If a colonial policy means an abandonment of the fundamental doctrines of self-government, certainly no one can seriously advise a permanent policy of colonialism. If by the first question it is meant to inquire whether there is a pecuniary advantage to be gained from colonialism, I would say that no pecuniary advantage could compensate us for the surrender of our ideals of government. Whether we can administer or defend colonies—these questions presuppose an affirmative answer to the question: Ought we to have colonies? So, too, the fourth question is dependent upon a prior one involving the righteousness of a colonial policy, although it might be answered by saying that we can Americanize colonies only by establishing them upon an American

basis; but then they would not be colonies at all, but free self-governing republics.

If I were writing the question which has been chosen for discussion, namely: How could the United States, if necessary, give up its colonies? I would leave out the phrase, "if necessary." If our nation ought not to hold colonies, then the question: How can they be given up? becomes a very practical as well as a very important one.

A word as to the propriety of our holding colonies. The Declaration of Independence sets forth certain self-evident truths—not truths capable of proof, but truths so clearly seen that no evidence need be adduced in their support: First, that all men are created equal; second, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; third, that to secure these rights governments are instituted among men; and fourth, that governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed. Our federal constitution gives legal expression to the principles set forth in the Declaration of Independence and our government has always been called a popular government because it recognizes the right of the people to decide for themselves the form of government under which they shall live, the instrumentalities through which they shall act and the legislation under which they shall live. Even as late as the spring of 1898, Congress, in declaring war against Spain, copied the language of the Declaration of Independence and de-

clared that the people of Cuba were and of right ought to be free and independent. Not until after the battle of Manila did any one propose a departure from the American doctrine that a government is a thing made by the people by themselves.

It is not necessary at this time to inquire into the profits and loss of the experiment, neither is it worth while to discuss whether imperialism is providential. Whether God calls us to force our government upon the Filipinos against their will, killing them if they object to benevolent assimilation, or whether He calls us to set them an example in self-government as we have set an example to other nations, is a question of opinion; whether the Philippine Islands are an opportunity which we are in duty bound to improve, or a temptation which we are in duty bound to resist, is a question upon which people conscientiously differ, as they have differed over slavery, over monarchy and over war. What we can decide is whether a colonial policy is in harmony with our principles, our traditions and our history, and, if not, whether we should turn our backs upon principles, tradition and history in order to maintain a carpet-bag government over remote territory.

That a colonial policy is essentially different from the policy which we have pursued is apparent. In the United States we have a Constitution which was made by representatives of the people and ratified by the people. We have a House of Representatives chosen directly by the people in proportion to population; we have a Senate in which the states have equal representation, the senators being elected by the legislatures, which are in turn elected by the people; we have a President elected by electors who are in turn elected and instructed by the people; and we have a United States Court chosen by the President. The people can change the personnel of the House of Representatives every two years; they can change the President every four years; they can entirely change the personnel of the Senate every six years, and they can change a majority of the United States Court in half a generation. While it requires more time to effect a change in the judiciary than in any other branch of the government, even this branch is within the control of the voters. The state, county and

municipal governments are even more responsive than the federal government to the will of the people. It can be said, therefore, that in the United States the voter is the sovereign and that the official is the servant, selected for a certain work and paid by his employer, the people.

In the Philippine Islands, however, the people have no authoritative voice in their own government. Supreme power is exercised by a commission which the Filipinos do not select and can not remove, and this commission derives its authority from acts of Congress; it is needless to say that the Filipinos have no voice in the election of this Congress.

The government which we administer in the Philippines rests entirely upon force, the foundation upon which Spain's government rested, the foundation upon which England's government in India rests and the foundation upon which England's government in the American colonies rested prior to the Revolution. We occupy the position that England occupied in 1776 and insist upon taxation without representation, while the Filipinos occupy the position which the colonists occupied and claim the right to control their own destiny. Of course, there is one important difference, we are stronger now than England was then and the Filipinos are weaker than the colonists were. This is an exceedingly important difference if we are going to adopt the doctrine that governments derive their just powers from the exercise of force, but it is an immaterial distinction if it is true that governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed.

Preaching and practice must be consistent; a nation can not for any great length of time preach one thing and practice another. It is not to be expected that a high ideal will be fully lived up to by a nation more than by an individual, but there must be an honest attempt. Our nation, therefore, must practice everywhere the doctrine of government by consent of the governed or cease to preach it. Shall we withdraw from our high position as the world's instructor in government?

Shall we turn to the Old World again,
With the penitent prodigal's plea?

Assuming that we desire to abandon the colonial policy upon which we embarked

in 1898, and return to the policies which have given us such a conspicuous place among the nations, how can it be done? It has been the habit of imperialists when routed upon the principles underlying imperialism and driven from the position that a colonial policy will be profitable, to fall back upon the assertion that we can not honorably withdraw from the islands. Sometimes they ask: Shall we leave the Filipinos to quarrel among themselves? Sometimes they insist that, having driven Spain out, we are in duty bound to protect foreign interests; and sometimes they hide behind the argument that it would be a national humiliation to confess a mistake by changing our policy.

In answer to the first question it is sufficient to say that this nation is under no obligation to help the Filipinos at so great a cost as would be involved in the surrender of the doctrines of self-government, especially when the Filipinos protest against the protection which we forcibly extend. As for the protection of foreign interests it would be cheaper to buy out those interests than it is to continue a colonial policy in order to protect them. It is never humiliating to do right, and, fortunately, there has been no declaration that a colonial policy is intended. In fact, a resolution declaring our purpose to recognize Philippine independence came so near passing the Senate that it required the vote of the Vice-President to defeat it. The dominant party has steadfastly refused to outline a policy or to declare either in platform or by legislative enactment any plan, purpose or intention. The nation is free, therefore, to promise independence.

Recently a few have suggested the propriety of selling the islands to the Japanese; but what right have we to sell eight millions of people to any foreign power? It is merely an evasion of the issue to say that we would only sell the land, for that would be counting the people as less important than the land upon which they live.

The sale of the Philippine Islands to any foreign power is so contrary to the instincts of our people and to our theory of government that it is scarcely worth considering. It is not likely to be proposed in Congress and would not receive substantial support if it were proposed.

But while we can not give a warrantee deed conveying the people and their liberties to a foreign power, we can give a quit-claim deed to the Filipinos themselves. We can recognize their rights to independence. This is not only in harmony with the principles of our government, but it is in line with precedent. We did that very thing in Cuba. We took possession during the war and after establishing a stable government, we withdrew and left the Cubans in charge. We have since then assumed temporary authority at the request of the government, but whether or not this was justified by the circumstances, it was regarded as a friendly intervention and only temporary in character. We can do in the Philippines what we did in Cuba and would find glory instead of humiliation in such a course.

In answer to the argument that the Philippine Islands are the key to the Orient and that we must hold them in order to extend our trade in Japan and Asia, it is sufficient to say that our commercial needs are satisfied when we have harbors and coaling stations; subject races held by force under an alien government are not necessary to commerce. We could and should retain such harbors and coaling stations as we need, and the Filipinos would not object to this. They would be as willing to concede such land to us as the people of Cuba were to make similar concessions.

If it is said that the islands will strengthen our position in the Pacific, it can be replied that the islands are a source of weakness rather than of strength, and that the possession of them has already given our naval experts an excuse for demanding an enormous increase in the navy. Alarmists tell us that we are in constant danger of a war because of the islands and that it is only a question of time when we shall be compelled to engage in a costly war to defend them.

The most familiar excuse advanced by imperialists is that if we do not hold the Philippine Islands some other nation will grab them. This is like excusing the stealing of a horse on the ground that some one else would have stolen him. This is not a necessary alternative; we can protect the Philippine Islands better

when they are independent than we can when they are colonies. If we give them independence they will have their national pride to inspire them and their own soldiers to assist us, whereas we must now keep a part of our army there to protect the government. There are eight million Filipinos on the island and they could organize an army of defense of several hundred thousand. These soldiers, led if necessary by American officers, could present a very formidable opposition to any attack upon their independence. When we remember the fight which they made against us when they were almost without arms, we can estimate their efficiency as allies when properly equipped and drilled.

But even better than guardianship would be the policy of neutralization. It is entirely probable that England, Germany, France, Russia, Japan and China would join with us in the protection of the independence of the Philippines in return for equal trade advantages, as Switzerland is protected from invasion by European powers.

There is no trouble about letting go, if we want to let go. It is as easy to haul down the flag in the Philippines as it was in Mexico and Cuba.

We do not want the Filipinos as citizens — they are too remote from us to understand our problems or we theirs, and the intercourse between the two countries is not sufficient to enable us to assimilate them. To make them citizens would simply inject another race question into our politics and that, too, a question which would have to be solved at arm's length.

They can not be subjects, for there is no place for subjects in a republic. We can not be half republic and half empire. If they can not share with us in a common destiny, and if we should not be their masters, there is but one other course open, namely, to give them their independence as soon as their government is in running order and to promise that independence now. We can inspire them by example and lead them by counsel better than we can rule them by force.

S. S. CURRY

BY

SHAILER MATHEWS

TWENTY-FIVE years ago "elocution" was in its heyday. Those of us who are drifting off into middle life can remember the "strokes of the glottis," the "orotund tones," the "sibilant whisperings" and descriptive gestures with which boys and girls and a good many people old enough to know better, were taught to interpret masterpieces, from "Curfew Shall Not Ring To-Night" to Hamlet's soliloquy. There were indeed great pioneers of better things — men like Lewis B. Monroe, Alexander Melville Bell, and Steele MacKaye — but the average teacher of elocution was the apostle of the artificial. His work was not educational and he taught mannerisms rather than sincere self-expression. He might, it is true, help a man who was by nature a great actor or orator, but in general the elocutionist

was the apostle of the unreal or the trivial. I can well remember one teacher who amused a class of college boys by seriously telling them how to lengthen their spines, and another man who used to invite doubtful Thomases among the sophomores to strike him in the pit of the stomach to show how well his diaphragm was under control. I have no doubt these men, if only their classes could have been induced to take them seriously, might have been not unhelpful. Unfortunately, however, college classes were unanimous in seeing the absurdity rather than the wisdom of such teachers.

Further than this, schools of elocution were pretty thoroughly commercial. In some of them the student body ran into the hundreds, and unless all signs failed their proprietors grew rich teaching young men and women how to simulate

affection and tragedy. It is true they had their philosophy, which doubtless was a good deal truer than some of us imagined. I remember attending a class of one of these schools, which I believe is still prospering, although somewhat reformed, in which a stout young woman, evidently intended by nature for a good cook rather than a public reader, complained of the difficulty she found in expressing all the emotions which she had been told were implicit in a certain declamation. The one piece of advice that I heard her teacher give her was "to get in harmony with the universe!" As she seemed reasonably satisfied, it may be that one should not complain of the method.

But there were promises of a better day. In the early seventies Silas S. Curry, a young man from Tennessee, had been one of Lewis B. Monroe's favorite pupils, and in 1879 was appointed to a position in Boston University to teach "expression." His work was so successful as to demand larger recognition, and with the consent of the university his department was made a separate school and in 1888 was incorporated as an independent institution. That School of Expression became at once the center of noble ideals, not only for the public speaker but also for literature and education itself. In its behalf Doctor Curry and his brilliant wife, Anna Baright Curry, have sacrificed and in it there are embodied influences which, if perpetuated by the proper endowments, will be a permanent influence for good as long as it remains true to the ideals for which it now stands, and all its friends believe it will always stand.

I remember the reading which Sir Henry Irving gave to found one of the school's scholarships. Unless I mistake it was almost the only reading that the great actor gave in America. After he had finished he spoke a few words of commendation so sincere and heartfelt that every one of us who at that time knew of the sacrifices Doctor Curry was making for his ideals of art, rejoiced that fit recognition had come from a source whose motives could in no way be misinterpreted. Sir Henry said:

"I can not allow the opportunity to pass without assuring you of the pleasure

it has given Miss Terry and myself to be associated with so excellent an institution as the School of Expression. It seems to me the danger in teaching elocution, although I do not claim to be an authority, is that some formal and artificial method should supersede nature. But in this school you seek to avoid that danger by the recognition of the principle that all good speaking comes from the training of the faculties of the mind. For the same reason, good acting is not declamation, but the expression of character; and the actor's aim is not to imitate this style or that, but to cultivate his own resources of impersonation."

It would have been hard to express the ideals of the new movement more happily.

The school has never been sufficiently endowed, but notwithstanding persistent temptation it has never been commercialized. In fact, it has been, if possible, too uncommercial. Any one of its students can recall the superb contempt and sometimes, it must be admitted, too oversevere criticism with which Doctor Curry has characterized the tendency on the part of certain workers in the same field to make what he regards an art into a mere trade.

Doctor Curry is essentially a man of temperament. It is a mystery how he has managed to survive thirty years of instruction. Probably he never could have survived if he had worked in the ordinary type of elocution schools and in colleges. His students have always been men and women of maturity. Clergymen, literally by the thousand; teachers of expression in colleges, theological seminaries and universities; students of literature who wish to be something more than mumbler of the great classics; lawyers, many of them of the highest standing; and many another such man or woman, have made up his classes both in the regular and particularly in the summer, School of Expression.

Unlike many teachers of the spoken word, Doctor Curry has never been a public reader. Rather he has been a teacher and a critic. Perhaps it is for that reason, as well as others, you can never recognize any one of his four thousand pupils by any mannerism of tone or gesture borrowed from him. It used to be said that a man could always tell a

graduate of Andover Theological Seminary because he preached like Professor Churchill. But the only similarity between the thousands of young clergymen who have come under Doctor Curry's instruction in Harvard, Yale, Newton, Boston and the School of Expression is their directness and unaffected sincerity. Some of us who are teachers of subjects far removed from that of public speaking, are only too ready to confess that through him we gained our first and probably our clearest insight into educational processes.

For Doctor Curry is essentially a philosopher in the field of expression. The volumes which he has published* are something more than prescriptions for gesture and voice production. They are a contribution to the art of education. His training is fundamentally one looking toward the liberation of the self from the restrictions set by self-consciousness whether of soul or muscle, and the training of the body to express accurately the spiritual experience.

The influence of Doctor Curry's method as set forth both by his students and his publications is to be seen in the teaching of public speaking throughout the country. I doubt whether Doctor Curry himself is aware how great that influence has been. The protesting spirit is still strong within him, and if he has made any serious mistake it has lain in an unwillingness to see that his fellows are increasingly in sympathy with his ideals. There are many charlatans, many men — and more's the pity — many women who think the reader's art consists in repeating poetry to piano accompaniment or in facial contortions. But there are many others, among them some who never were expressly enrolled as Doctor Curry's pupils, who are sincere interpreters of the best in literature. Men like Leland Powers who have been associated with him in the School of Expression have done much to raise public reading into a genuine art.

Yet even greater has been Doctor Curry's influence upon public speaking as distinct from public reading. Under his training oratory has become a direct and forceful presentation of thought colored with personality. The new style of direct speech in our pulpits which has replaced holy tones and sanctimonious accents is due largely to him.

As a critic both of literature and of speech Doctor Curry is one of the most sympathetic and yet one of the most severe of men. He exposes insincerity or professionalism on the part even of men who come to him with reputations with a frankness that would be humorous if it were not tragic for his victim and expensive for himself! His summer school is a little democracy of education. Young women from the West who desire to prepare themselves to teach reading in the public schools, professors in theological seminaries and colleges, clergymen, lawyers and professional readers sit side by side to be successively subjected to his kindly but uncompromising ministrations.

But no one of these men or women leaves his classes without one central impression: public speaking is an art as truly as is painting or sculpture. Even if they can not always agree with every ideal they hear discussed, they will never go about the country making pretty gestures without a pricking of conscience. They will never attempt tricks of the older trade without some sense of self-abasement. They will never interpret cheap stories in place of real literature without a recollection of a teacher who, with something of the fierceness of the prophetic spirit, begged and plead and all but terrorized them into a recognition of the sincerity of art, and of the art of expression in particular.

Our colleges have not yet placed public speaking on the basis that it deserves. But some day teachers of literature and of theology will come to see that the best interpretation is that of the reader. Some day, too, it will be recognized that the same principles of education which have installed manual training in schools are even more applicable to the training of men's souls to rational self-expression. In that day Doctor Curry will be seen to have been something more than a teacher of

* Doctor Curry's published books are: "Province of Expression" (1891); "Lessons in Vocal Expression" (1895); "Imagination and Dramatic Instinct" (1896); "Literary and Vocal Interpretation of the Bible" (1903); "Foundations of Expression" (1907); and he is the editor of "Classics of Vocal Expression" (1888). He has ready for the printer, "Principles of Training," "The Monologue," "Voice Culture," books on the vocal interpretation of literature, "Pantomimic Expression," and "Rhythm and Melody in Speech."

S. S. CURRY, PH D.

**Director of the School of Expression, Boston
From a painting by F. H. Thompson**

readers, something more than a prolific and stimulating writer. He will be seen to have been in the truest sense of the word an educational philosopher to whom it was given to rescue a noble art and to champion in a commercial age principles

which are no less true of the spoken word than of every form of creative self-expression. There could be no better appropriation of funds than to endow generously the school that will perpetuate his ideals.

SHIFTING THE COMMERCIAL CENTER OF GRAVITY

2 WHAT MINNEAPOLIS HAS DONE AND BECOME WITHIN SIXTY YEARS

BY

JAMES LINN NASH

TY years ago the Northwest, including what is now Minnesota, western Wisconsin, North and South Dakota and Montana, was wilderness of prairie and forest inhabited chiefly by a few bands of roving Indians. White settlers had only begun to creep in along the eastern edge of this vast territory. But settlement once begun progressed rapidly. Immigrants poured in and soon spread over the eastern portion of the region.

Lumbering was at first the principal industry. Millions of acres of timber covering a large part of Minnesota and Wisconsin made this inevitable. As the population increased and the pioneers began breaking up the broad prairie lands and cutting down the forests, agriculture became prominent. The rich soil and invigorating climate were found to

be peculiarly adapted to the raising of wheat, and before many years had passed the Northwest became the great wheat belt of the United States. Other fruits of the soil were not neglected and the quantity and variety of the products increased until almost enough was raised by northwestern farmers to feed the nation.

For such a vast, rich producing territory there must be a great central marketing and distributing point. The natural location for this commercial center was at the head of navigation on the continent's greatest river, the Mississippi, where there was abundant water power for manufacturing purposes furnished by the mighty stream itself. There two prosperous cities, Minneapolis and St. Paul, have grown up, side by side.

Situated on the west bank of the river and possessing the advantage of the immense water power supplied by St. Anthony Falls, Minneapolis has outstripped her sister city and has become the great

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THE BOULEVARD AND HEDGE AT LAKE CALHOUN

large deposits in them were obliged in self-defense to take somewhat similar action. At no time during the panic, however, did they entirely stop paying cash. It was always possible for a depositor to obtain a portion of his money. In spite of the fact that the city's banks furnished relief to institutions in other places which

were suffering from panic pressure, their annual statements issued December 6 showed that they had a cash reserve from six to ten per cent larger than that required by law.

The Twin Cities form the commercial gateway of the Northwest. Twenty-three lines of road operated under ten

THE PAVILION AND BAND STAND AT LAKE HARRIET

In the Minneapolis Park System

the natural healthfulness of the region. The city is spread over a large area, the streets are broad, the houses are generally set well apart, and in addition to parks and boulevards, there are many other open spaces so that pure air and sunshine are everywhere abundant.

Much of the growth and prosperity of Minneapolis is due to the public spirit which its citizens have always manifested to an unusual degree. The list of those who have devoted their time and money to advancing the city's interests is long. Evidence of this is found in the number of fine buildings erected at public expense, through large individual donations and by popular subscriptions, and in the amount of property deeded to the city for park purposes.

Of late years the Commercial Club has been most active in building up the city. When the board of trade, which had previously done much to promote the city's interests, passed out of existence, it left its public work as a legacy to the Commercial Club. To properly care for this bequest the club created a committee on public affairs, and this organization has achieved good results. It has secured for

managing other important details in connection with that immense gathering.

Caring for conventions is, however, not the only public work done by this branch of the Commercial Club. It has induced a number of manufacturing and jobbing firms to locate in Minneapolis by assisting them, either through interesting local capital or securing desirable building sites for them.

As the natural center of a magnificent region whose resources have as yet scarcely been touched and whose possibilities are unreckoned, Minneapolis has before it a splendid future. The territory now tributary to the city, including Minnesota, western Wisconsin, the Dakotas, northern Iowa and Montana, now has a population of five million, while the enterprising merchants of Minneapolis have extended their trade over a vast region lying north and west of a line drawn from the Soo to southern California and having a population of fifteen million.

The Northwest is as yet but a sparsely settled region and is capable of supporting in comfort a population five times as great as it now numbers. With the rapid

CORNER OF FIFTH STREET AND FIRST AVENUE

A good illustration of the new type of buildings

the city a number of large conventions, and arranged for their entertainment. One of its greatest achievements was providing for the entertainment of the two hundred and six thousand visitors who thronged Minneapolis during the national G. A. R. encampment in 1906 and

development of this section which is certain to come, Minneapolis as its metropolis and leader, a city modern, enterprising, healthful and beautiful, is destined to prosper and increase in wealth, population and influence beyond the expectations of its most optimistic citizens.

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The Battle-ship Rhode Island

THE FIGHTING SHIPS OF THE FUTURE

BY

DANIEL T. PIERCE

The Navy is again in the foreground of public interest. The Pacific cruise is almost forgotten in the troubles of the administration of naval affairs. The resignation of Admiral Brownson, the President's vigorous letter of disapproval of the act, the criticism of the structure of our vessels and their armor, all appeal to the average citizen. The article by Mr. Pierce is particularly timely and will help to make clear some of the real issues of the controversy concerning the efficiency of our war vessels.



WITH a fleet of sixteen of our battle-ships on the way from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean, and with the Secretary of the Navy, backed by President Roosevelt, asking of the present Congress \$70,000,000 for new construction, there is reason enough, aside from the normal interest in naval affairs, to review the present and probable future of the navy.

By a bit of good luck the United States is now occupying second place among the

naval powers of the world, our total tonnage being 611,616, as against 609,709 for France. These are the Navy Department's own figures, and they eliminate vessels more than twenty years old, as well as colliers, repair ships and torpedo craft of less than fifty tons. France, however, is building more rapidly than we are, and when the vessels now in her yards are completed within a few months, she will again outrank the United States, for she will have 836,112 tons, as against our 771,758. It is, however, a pleasant experience even if a short one, to stand second only to Great Britain in sea power.

The feeling comes from the unquestionable fact that the navy is by far the most popular expression of the nation's strength. The Pacific cruise was not needed to inspire this popularity. A better explanation of it is that given by Captain Mahan, who believes that "a perfectly sufficient reason for the cruise was the experience to be gained by the fleet in making a long voyage, which might otherwise have to be made for the first time under the pressure of war and the disadvantage of not having experienced at least once the huge administrative difficulties connected with so distant an expedition by a large body of vessels dependent upon their own resources."

But while proud of the navy and willing to be taxed heavily for it, the average man can not help feeling certain misgivings when, after counting up the enormous cost of naval construction and maintenance, he is told that our warships are

each. But between the date of their design and their launching came Admiral Togo's victory in the Tsushima Straits, and when the naval authorities had figured out the meaning of that battle, it was discovered that these two ships were "antiquated" — a year and a half before they were to go into commission!

This is a striking example of the process that is going on all the time in all navies. Not long ago the British naval authorities auctioned off twenty-three naval vessels at Portsmouth, realizing £375,000 for the lot that had cost \$8,000,000. Five of these vessels were built later than 1900. These five cost over £2,500,000 and brought \$125,000 under the hammer. And only two out of the total of twenty-three had ever been under fire. It is a safe guess that eighty per cent of the fighting ships of all navies now afloat will never fire their guns, except for target practice or salute. This, from one point of view, is

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THE BATTLE SHIP MINNESOTA

The newer type of battleship which now is already becoming out of date

out of date before they leave the shipyard. When the battle-ships Kansas and Vermont were planned they represented the best type of war-ship that any power knew how to build; including armor, armament and equipment at about \$7,000,000

not a fact to be regretted, but it is in order to consider that not more than twenty out of every one hundred of the immensely costly war vessels now being planned will ever take part in a war. They may be a powerful prophylactic

THE DREADNOUGHT, FOR THE MOMENT THE GREATEST BRITISH BATTLE-SHIP

A unique photographic position, showing her upper decks, great guns and masts, with their tripods. This photograph was taken by Stephen Cribb, official photographer of the British Admiralty. The United States Government wrote Cribb, asking him to supply it with photographs showing the Dreadnought from every possible viewpoint, the government's idea being evidently to study the photographs for construction purposes.

gagements will be fought by fleets moving in parallel lines, with the ships of the two lines about a quarter of a mile ahead of each other. The victory in future naval engagements, we are told, will rest with the fleet that is able to concentrate the largest number of heavy guns within the shortest line of battle. Here is a reason for the big battle-ship that even the layman can understand.

The reason for the big gun is simple enough. Its greater destructive effect, flatter curve of flight, and the difficulty of handling guns of different calibers explain why the twelve-inch gun is given the advantage, notwithstanding the greater rapidity of fire of small guns. Range finding, under present conditions, is a very different thing from what it is popularly supposed to be. At the great ranges now used the method universally adopted is to find the range by trial shots. These are observed from the splash of the shell and the result is telephoned to the gunners. With three or four calibers of guns firing at once, it is impossible to tell what

range to give the gunners. So far the advantages of a larger caliber than twelve inches have not been demonstrated, although the British admiralty is now said to be making 13½-inch pieces for the new twelve-gun ships under way in English yards. Furthermore, the difficulty of building and handling a larger gun than twelve inches is not so great as in finding a charge for it that will not render the piece of too short life.

As usual, Great Britain was the first to take advantage of the lessons learned in the Russo-Japanese war, and the eighteen thousand five hundred-ton Dreadnought set the pace for the world's navies.

In our own navy the battle-ships South Carolina and Michigan, now under construction, are the first to be designed after the end of the war, and were supposed to embody the experience gathered during that conflict. They differ mainly from the ships that immediately preceded them, the Idaho and the Mississippi, which, by the way are not yet completed, in the elimination of the intermediate and

secondary batteries, while the main batteries are doubled, mounting eight twelve-inch guns in pairs in four turrets, two forward and two aft. Congress having limited the displacement of the ships to sixteen thousand tons, it was necessary to reduce the freeboard by about eight feet,

at the Fore River yards and Newport News. They are of twenty thousand tons displacement, but the difference in size is not so noticeable as their lofty freeboard, and their batteries will be more powerful by two twelve-inch guns and a secondary battery of five-inch pieces. Their speed

THE CRUISER COLORADO

Arriving at League Island Navy Yard for the commissioning ceremonies

which gives the ships a very odd appearance. Carrying all of their twelve-inch guns on the center line of the ship, the South Carolina and the Michigan will have the same broadside fire as the Dreadnought, although that vessel is of more than two thousand tons greater displacement.

How rapidly one change follows another in naval construction is seen in a comparison of the drawings of the ships just mentioned, and those of the North Dakota and Delaware, which have hardly been begun

of twenty-one knots is three and one-half knots faster than the South Carolina and Michigan and greater armor protection is planned for them than any ship afloat now has. The main armor belt is eleven inches thick by eight feet in width, and above it the ship's sides will be protected by another belt seven feet wide and ten inches thick. In the North Dakota turbines will be introduced for propulsion, while the Delaware will be driven by reciprocating engines. The entire change that has been made in armor protection in

our latest ships suggests more than a possibility that those critics who have been saying that our ships do not carry their armor belts in the right place must be right.

If there is any limit short of thirty thousand tons for the war-ships of the future, it is not now in sight. And cer-

French are going on the theory that one of the principal elements in Japan's success against the Russians was the use of shells holding an enormous amount of powder. When the Japanese projectiles exploded they gave off a prodigious amount of heat which melted the hardest steel and produced a volume of gases that penetrated

THE BRITISH BATTLE-SHIP GLORY

The old type of British war-ship

tainly there seems to be no limit in the matter of cost. A few years ago \$3,000,000 was considered an extravagant amount of money to put into one battle-ship. Since then armored cruisers of the Colorado and West Virginia class have been developed, and the twenty thousand ton battle-ship will cost at least \$10,000,000. The four new battle-ships asked of Congress at this session are estimated to cost \$9,500,000, exclusive of guns, armor and equipment.

Mere size and weight will not be the only distinguishing characteristics of the battle-ship of the future. Its armor will be more highly protective and will be placed so that hull and superstructure are equally defended. Its guns, as we have seen, will be more highly destructive, and the explosives they use will differ greatly from the explosives of the past. The

every part of the Russian ships and asphyxiated all who breathed it. Men in the dynamo rooms and at the bottom of the ammunition hoists of the Russian ships were found dead with not a scratch on them, suffocated by the gases of the Japanese shells.

A computation made as to the comparative energy of gun fire between the Oregon of 1897 and the Rhode Island of 1907, gives the former a total energy for all guns in five minutes' firing as 819,456 foot tons, against 3,927,172 foot tons for the Rhode Island. Some of the most ingenious work done by the gunbuilders is in the direction of providing for the recoil of the fifty-ton twelve-inch rifles, using a charge of 335 pounds and hurling projectiles weighing 870 pounds and capable of perforating sixteen inches of Krupp

armor at a distance of a mile and a half. Obviously it would be impossible to hold the gun rigid, for the energy produced when it is fired is sufficient to lift the steamship *Lusitania* bodily out of the water. This enormous energy is rendered harmless by gradually absorbing the recoil by hydraulic cylinders attached to a movable sleeve.

A yoke at the breech of the gun is attached to the piston-rods of the recoil cylinders carried on the sleeve, and the recoil is checked by the escape from the pressure side to the reverse side of the piston, of the liquid contained in the cylinders. This liquid passes the piston through grooves cut in the walls of the cylinders, these grooves being made deep enough to give a full opening at the beginning of the recoil, but gradually tapering until the proper limit of the recoil is reached, when the grooves narrow to a point and cut off any further flow. Springs inside the recoil cylinder keep the guns from moving when the ship rolls. During the recoil these springs are compressed and exert sufficient force to return the guns to firing position as soon as the recoil ceases.

In explosives the principal improvements are along the line of cutting down the amount of erosion, and in our navy this has been done by substituting nitro-cellulose powder for nitro-glycerine. The disadvantage of this change is that it renders a larger powder chamber necessary. But besides doing away with a large amount of troublesome smoke, the compensating advantages are that the slower burning powder gives off fresh volumes of gas during the whole time the projectile is traveling through the gun. The old black and brown powders ignited instantaneously in a mass so that the pressure fell between the ignition and the instant the projectile left the muzzle of the gun. With the new powders the pressure steadily increases. The velocity of the guns used in the Spanish war was not over two thousand feet per second. In our latest guns it is two thousand seven hundred feet per second, the additional velocity increasing by this much the striking energy at all ranges, and by lowering the range of the projectile's flight making a wider danger zone for the enemy.

One of the latest explosives is dunnite,

the secret of which has been made over to the United States Government exclusively. Experiments show that maxinite, lyddite, thorite and the Japanese shimose do not compare in destructive effects with dunnite, one of the great advantages of which is that it does not explode upon impact, but by means of a fuse after the shell has penetrated.

Torpedo boat and destroyer construction veers from one extreme to another. There is no constant rule in their development such as is seen in battle-ship design. From 1903 to 1905 England built thirty-five torpedo boats 220 feet in length and having a speed of twenty-five and one-half knots. In the five preceding years her torpedo boats were designed for thirty knots, every other consideration being sacrificed for speed. Since 1905 there has been a return to this rule, but displacement is more in proportion to the speed of the boats now building, which are turbines of thirty-three knots speed and eight hundred tons displacement. Japan late in the year startled the naval world by beginning a destroyer of 1,100 tons to carry four torpedo tubes and make thirty-five knots. Our largest destroyers are only 420 tons, make twenty-nine knots, and carry two tubes.

The list of minor innovations in almost every part of modern war-ships helps us to understand why it is that the men who are responsible for the efficiency of these ships are well-nigh driven mad by the duties thrust upon them. For some years our constructors, in common with those of other nations, felt bound to give at least a trial to every improvement that was offered. The result was that our ships contained more machinery than their officers and mechanics could keep in order. The testing of new inventions still goes on unceasingly, but a halt has been called and the improvements of the future must add materially to the efficiency of the fighting ship before they are adopted.

The progress of the use of electricity aboard war vessels continues without interruption. On the Vermont type of battle-ship only the steering, windlass and ash-hoist engines, the force draft blowers, ice-plant, distilling and heating system, are run by steam. All the other auxiliaries are operated by electricity. Light-

ing, ventilation, ammunition hoists, fire-room indicators, the laundries, the power bulkhead doors, and the thousand and one auxiliaries of the battle-ship of the future will depend upon the ship's generators for power.

The wireless telegraph will, in the future, be of even greater importance as a means of communication than it is now. At the start of the Pacific cruise an opportunity was given to the vessels of the torpedo-boat destroyer flotilla to demonstrate the usefulness of the wireless telephone, with which they are equipped. Messages subsequently verified were exchanged over a distance of more than thirteen miles. All of the "wireless" ships of the fleet have wireless telephones.

Along with the wireless telegraph and telephone will be used the system of submarine signals, of which the entire practicability has been shown by the government's wireless submarine signals off the Massachusetts coast. This apparatus consists of a pair of cubical receiving boxes located one on each side of the forward hold, several feet below the wave line. The direction of the signals received is accurately determined by listening alternately at the port and starboard receivers. In order that the knowledge of the signals may be utilized instantly, a megaphone attachment is employed, from which wires transmit the signals to the receiver in the wheelhouse. Between the ships of a squadron these submarine signals will be of immense value.

Just after the Mikasa disaster it developed that our naval constructors had been working at plans to prevent explosions in the magazines ever since the explosion aboard the Missouri. On the Missouri, half an hour after the disaster occurred, it was found that only two feet of water had come through the flood cocks of the magazines, and had the flames from the exploding gun reached the exposed ammunition, the same thing that happened to the Mikasa would have happened to the Missouri. Now a device has been perfected which will make it possible to flood the magazines from above, the water entering under high pressure from the fire mains. This improvement is typical of many designed to protect the battle-ship of the future from dangers within as well as without.

The smokestacks in the future must be armored. The conning tower has been shown to be altogether too liable to injury, and the directive intelligence of the war-ship must be located in a place less exposed to disaster. The Japanese disabled the Czaravitch by concentrating fire upon her pilot-house, and naval experts have decided that some means must be found to insure the direction of the steering apparatus from a place of absolute safety. An inventor claims to have perfected a device which may be moved from one part of the ship to another at need and placed in contact with conductors running to the electrical steering apparatus. If this invention proves practicable, it will be possible to steer the vessel from any one of a dozen locations.

Naval constructors have not yet made up their minds positively as to the future of turbines in war-ships, but it is most probable that the turbine will be resorted to to produce the greater speeds demanded. If we are to have the twenty-two knot battle-ship and the thirty-knot cruiser, something superior to the present type of engine must be devised, and the turbine is the only thing in sight to do the work. We shall know more about this when the North Dakota has had her trial trip.

While most of the inventive genius of the naval expert is bent upon efforts to increase the destructive power of his ships, the comfort and welfare of the men who are to fight them is not entirely forgotten. Instead of one hospital station, the war-ship of the future will have several, to provide against the possibility of a single hospital being rendered untenable. Improved means for conveying the wounded to these hospital stations are now the subject of earnest study.

Submarines did not prove their value in the Far Eastern War. And yet no nation feels that it would be safe to leave them out of its naval program. It is within the realm of possibility that the submarine will become so formidable that the war-ship of the future will need armor below as much as above the water line. This would give rise to another set of problems for naval constructors to solve. The program recommended to Congress last December includes four additional submarines. Great Britain is constantly

adding to her fleet of submarines, and has lately increased their length to 135 feet. The earlier types of submarine were only sixty-five feet long.

It would be hopeless to attempt to catalogue all the improvements that will be found in the war-ship of the future. Enough of them have been mentioned to show why it is that the costly war-engine that goes into commission this month, after three years in the shipyard, must, in point of efficiency, be far behind the war-ship the plans for which take into account later inventions and riper expe-

rience. Just now the difference between the old battle-ship and the new is more than ordinarily striking because the Russo-Japanese war provided the first actual experience the world has had with modern war-ships in battle. The Santiago sea fight taught little or nothing. The Russo-Japanese war was marked by two engagements that showed how and with what kind of engines naval warfare can most effectively be conducted, and so the race among the powers for more ponderous and more heavily armed war-ships goes forward anew.

THE RESEARCHES OF PROFESSOR A. A. MICHELSON

BY

HENRY CREW

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Professor A. A. Michelson has, within the past year, received the Copley Medal of the British Association, probably the highest honor given science in Great Britain, and the Nobel Prize for researches in physics. Previously he has received the Matteucci and Rumford medals. All of these honors have come to him for scientific work about which the world at large knew very little. The present article by Professor Crew presents the matter as simply as a technical subject permits. A photograph of Professor Michelson appeared in the January number of THE WORLD TO-DAY.

THE difficulty in estimating the work of a contemporary is proverbial. In point of time, we stand too near the canvas. Yet for the sake of the inspiration which it brings, an attempt to understand the achievements of such a genuinely modest investigator as Professor Michelson is well worth while. And for that group of men who having learned that science consists largely of *ideas*, as well as of observed facts, immediately infer the entire structure to be a series of cunningly devised fables, a conscientious review of Michelson's work will be most helpful.

His first important research — the ac-

curate measurement of the speed of light — was outlined in a simple, characteristic half-page in *Nature* (18, 195, 1878), some thirty years ago. The method here proposed made the quantity to be observed some two hundred times larger than the corresponding quantity found by previous experimenters, and gave correspondingly accurate results. Few of the parameters of nature are of more importance than the velocity of light, involved as it is in the computation of stellar distances, and in the formulæ which describe the behavior of electrons in an atom.

The accuracy of Michelson's measures, which were undertaken at the Naval Academy, is not entirely easy to imagine. The final result was that light travels in

vacuo with a velocity just short of three hundred million meters a second, with an uncertainty of thirty thousand meters per second. A rather large possible error, one might think. Considered from another viewpoint the problem is to measure the distance which light will travel in the course of a single second; and that distance is something more than seven trips about the earth at the equator. This enormous stretch Professor Michelson has measured with an error probably not exceeding the distance which a man would walk within a single day; or, if you please, he has measured the time required for these seven round trips of the earth with an error probably not exceeding the ten-thousandth of a second.

In the fundamental character of this problem, in the clear vision with which the solution was planned, in the Greek sense of proportion according to which every detail receives its proper attention, and in the wide-spread confidence which has made his the standard determination for more than a quarter-century, this early work is prophetic of his entire later career.

We next hear of him at Berlin and Potsdam, in the early eighties, attacking another fundamental problem, one which is to be reckoned among the most puzzling in the whole domain of physics, the "aberration question," which briefly and bluntly is this: Does the medium, vacuum, ether, or whatever the reader prefers to call it, that carries sunlight and starlight to us, remain fixed in space while the earth moves through it, or does the earth, including its atmosphere, drag the ether along with it?

The brilliant discovery of Bradley, nearly two hundred years ago, that the motion of the earth in its orbit causes the apparent position of the "fixed" stars to vary, and every astronomical observation since his time, point to a quiescent ether, that is, an ether fixed in space. The telescopic indications are that the earth in its motion allows the ether to drift through it as freely, to use Young's simile, "as a breeze through a grove of trees."

But when Professor Michelson devised his interferometer for the express purpose of measuring this drift, by a method apparently faultless, he found not the

slightest trace of any relative motion between earth and ether; where, *if the accepted interpretation be correct*, he would have found a small but distinctly measurable displacement. A little later at Cleveland, the clever coöperation of Professor Morley, and more refined instrumental means, gave the same result. A repetition by Morley and Miller, with apparatus five times as sensitive, emphasized the precision of the previous work. Still later experiments by Michelson at the Ryerson Laboratory have proved beyond all reasonable doubt that the result is not due to errors of observation. Whether the event shall show that the ether, instead of being quiescent, moves with the earth, or whether it shall prove that the length of a body depends, as suggested by Lorentz, upon its azimuth, in either case the triumph will be that of the Michelson interferometer.

To-day the principal use of this instrument is quite different from that for which it was designed. It is now the universal standard instrument for measuring exceedingly minute distances, possessing the unique advantage of carrying with it (in its source of light) its own standard of length. The altered employment which the interferometer has already found illustrates the difficulty hinted at in the first sentence of this article.

Another study undertaken conjointly with Professor Morley was for the purpose of determining the extent to which the ether is carried along with transparent media—such as water—in motion. This is the quantity known as the "coefficient of ether drift" and is essentially another phase of the aberration problem. The result was to confirm the ideas of Fresnel and the experiments of Fizeau so thoroughly that the question has not been reopened for twenty years.

Next we hear of preparations for an assault upon still another fundamental and characteristic problem, namely: Is it possible to substitute for the arbitrary international standard of length—the meter, which is said to be "preserved" at Paris, perhaps because it is crystallizing and changing in other ways—a natural and absolutely invariable standard which may be adopted, as Maxwell suggests, even "by those who expect their

writings to be more permanent than this earth?"

The answer which Professor Michelson gave to this question is not a mere expression of opinion, but is the actual number of wave lengths of red cadmium light in a meter, with an uncertainty surely not so large as one part in a million, and probably not greater than one part in twenty million. A preliminary study of twenty different sources of light demanded by this research was in itself a *magnum opus*, demanding of the scientist an unusual combination of skill and judgment.

Measures reported within the last year by a group of the most skillful men living (Perot, Fabry and Benoit) show that the meter to-day is not different from that examined by Michelson fourteen years ago by more than one part in ten million. A discrepancy of this size is the same as that between two measurements of the distance from the equator to the north pole which should differ by three feet! The Lusitania under full steam would require ten days to cover such a quadrant of the earth. The moral, if not the legal effect of Professor Michelson's work at Paris was to replace the meter, considered not as our unit of length, but as our standard of length, by a wave length of cadmium light.

Shortly after coming to the University of Chicago the question of the distribution of light in spectral lines was resumed, one remarkable result of which was to demonstrate the dependence of width upon relatively small changes in temperature of the source and upon atomic mass. His studies along this general line bid fair to open up a field of micro-spectroscopy almost comparable to that initiated by Kirdhoff and Bunsen in 1859.

A little later (1898) is announced, in conjunction with Stratton, that exquisite device known as the harmonic analyzer, an instrument which will take a complex periodic motion and resolve it into a set of simple pendulum motions. The grist of the machine is a complicated curve obtained from experiment; the product of the machine is a set of simple sine curves from which the complex structure is built up. The cleverness of the instrument reminds one of the dredging machine of

which the Irishman remarked: "It has but one defect; it can not vote."

Some two years earlier (1896) the Dutch physicist, Zeeman, discovered the remarkably fruitful effect produced by placing a source of light—say an electric spark—in a strong magnetic field. The importance of the phenomenon was at once recognized by Michelson, who took up its study with his customary skill; the outcome being that the astonishing complexity of the Zeeman effect, as well as many of the laws which reduce this apparent complexity to relative simplicity, were first announced from the Ryerson Laboratory. No sooner had the Zeeman effect and similar phenomena in spectroscopy given rise to increased demand for resolving power, than a new spectroscope, ten times as powerful as the finest of gratings, was designed and produced in this same laboratory. A simple pile of from twenty to thirty pieces cut from a single plane parallel glass plate, placed *en echelon* between the two telescopes of an ordinary spectroscope. That's all! But back of this the same clear vision, perfect workmanship, consummate skill! At the recent meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science there was described by Michelson a combination of this new spectroscope—called the "echelon"—with the grating which will vastly increase its rate and ease of working, and make it a standard instrument for the determination of wave lengths with high precision.

Passing over a number of minor contributions, space permits the mention of only one other piece of work; this refers to the art of ruling diffraction gratings—the standard means for producing good spectra. The task of making a fine grating is so arduous that only a single man during the last generation succeeded in it. This was Rowland of Johns Hopkins. Any reader who may entertain doubts as to the difficulty of the problem is earnestly recommended to try the cutting, grinding, mounting and adjusting of a screw which will rule one hundred thousand equi-distant parallel lines, no one of which shall be out of its proper position by so much as the one-hundred-thousandth of an inch. This is practically what Rowland accomplished in his large gratings. To duplicate a Rowland grating

is an ambitious task. But to make gratings which are larger and better than the best of Rowland's is what has been accomplished at the Ryerson Laboratory within the year just closed.

Something like the above is a rough and imperfect outline of some of the researches, the appreciation of which has brought genuine pleasure to all of Professor Michelson's many friends.



THE GROWTH OF CHRISTIAN SCIENCE IN ENGLAND

■

FREDERICK DIXON

years ago the editor of a great London paper, discussing the attitude he had adopted in regard to Christian Science, declared it radical as were his views on all political and social questions, he yet remained an unregenerate Tory in religion. The remark is a by no means unfair reflection of the national temperament. The Englishman has for so long, in the phrase of Voltaire, been permitted "as one accustomed to liberty, to go to heaven his own way" as to be in danger of forgetting that what is termed heresy has quite often been a synonym for progress.

To the orthodox pagan no less than to the orthodox Jew, Paul no doubt was "a pestilent fellow." Authority has rarely been on the side of the reformer. It has a constitutional fear of change, and would rather the Demetriuses of this world made "no small gain" than hear the rush of the people's feet into the theater. It is just this conservative element in human thought, this innate resistance to change, *which, coupled with the fact that author-*

ity and reform have been less in collision there than elsewhere in Europe, has made England so peculiarly free from the wilder aberrations of the religionist. Of course there have been periods, like that of the great Rebellion, prolific in such manifestations, but the Pantheists of the Vale of Belvoir vanished almost as rapidly as they appeared, while Muggletonianism, even if it really did continue for two centuries, did so in complete obscurity.

These facts being admitted, as they must be, the progress of Christian Science in England becomes the more remarkable. The movement is at present barely more than seventeen years old, but it has already overspread the whole country. Yet there has been nothing sensational in this growth, for Christian Scientists can not be made, in the bitter phrase of Sir Robert Walpole in speaking of patriots, "like mushrooms in a night." This must indeed have been grimly apparent to the pioneers of the movement. How often, one wonders, did these pioneer Christian Scientists look down at midnight from their windows, like Diogenes Teufelsdröckh, into that awful labyrinth of gas-

lit streets, where under their "smoke-counterpane" five millions of human beings lay "heaped and huddled together, with nothing but a little carpentry and masonry between them," striving in their loneliness to realize the truth of that great saying of Douglas', "with God one is a majority."

The earliest of these pioneers was Miss Anne Dodge, who came from New York in 1890. She made her home in London for a year, healing the sick and holding tiny meetings. When she returned to America she left many grateful patients and something beyond the power of man to recall, the fact that she had faithfully proclaimed those eternal truths of which the Master said, "Heaven and earth shall pass away, but my words shall not pass away." Miss Dodge's place was taken by Mrs. Freshman. She too stayed for a year, stemming practically unsupported the mill-chase of human thought racing through the greatest city in the world. Those were the days when the very name, "Christian Science," was not known to a score of people in England, when London spoke with the voice of Laodicea out of the mouth of the "great pride of Jerusalem," saying, "I am rich, and have gotten riches, and have need of nothing."

In the entire country there were at that time not a dozen copies of "Science and Health." One or two were on the shelves of the library in the British Museum where they had found their way through the interest of that broadminded thinker, the late Professor Huxley, and another there was in the library in Westminster, placed there by one of the greatest of the great Abbey's great deans, and inscribed by his own hand as "presented by Arthur Stanley." Even three years later, when a copy of the text-book was ordered from one of the largest bookshops in London, the money was returned, at the end of three months, with the information that no such book could be traced.

Other Scientists were brought to London in those days by pleasure or by business. They too cast their seed, like the sower, now by the wayside, now on stony ground, sometimes among thorns, and sometimes on good ground. Hardly one of these knew what another did. If they met it was in the turmoil of the streets,

only to go their way unknown to each other as "ships which pass in the night."

It was not until 1894 that regular services were commenced in London. Among those who had seen Miss Dodge off when she sailed for England was Mrs. Ward, the daughter-in-law of the Irish art publisher. Mrs. Ward had herself returned to England in 1892, and had settled at Bedford. As a Christian Science student and worker she came naturally in contact with some of those whom Miss Dodge and Mrs. Freshman had interested in the work, and she was also in close communication with Mrs. Colles, one of Mrs. Eddy's own students, then living at Mount Eagleton, Dublin Bay. At the request of all of these Mrs. Ward determined to move to London and restart the work there. Accordingly, in 1894 she came to London and settled in Hammersmith, where she commenced reading the weekly lesson. From henceforth there was no looking back. A year later she moved to Portman Mansions. In Hammersmith she had been in the suburbs; in Baker Street she was in the center of London. The attendance at the meetings crept slowly up to about sixteen, and it was then that Mr. Landy, the present head usher in the Mother Church, who was on a visit to London, suggested that the time had come to take a public room. This advice was at once acted on. In March, 1896, the small hall in the Portman Rooms was engaged, and the first Christian Science service in a public building in London was opened to the world.

The result was never for a moment in doubt. The testimony meetings began to attract attention, and the hall filled so rapidly that by midsummer it was felt by those who had made themselves responsible for the work that the time had come for Christian Scientists to provide a church for themselves. After some search, a disused synagogue, in Bryanston Street, belonging to the Spanish and Portuguese Jews, was discovered. Negotiations were entered into for its purchase. The Jews were at first doubtful about selling it. Like a great many other people whose knowledge of Christian Science is second-hand, they knew a great many things about Christian Science that no Christian Scientist knew. However, after attending

one or two services, their objections disappeared, and the transfer of the property was effected.

The remodeling of the buildings, which entailed the practical removal of the interior, was undertaken by Sir Douglas Galton, a distinguished Royal Engineer, and one of the leading scientific men of the day, who had become a convert to Christian Science. Under his directions the Rabbi's house was fitted up as a reading room and offices, while the synagogue proper became the church. On Sunday, November 7, 1897, the first Christian Science church in Europe opened its doors to the world. "To-day," cabled Mrs. Eddy, "a nation is born. Spiritual apprehension unfolds, transfigures, heals. With you be there no more sea, no ebbing faith, no night. Love be thy light upon the mountain of Israel. God will multiply thee."

So far the course of Christian Science in England had been steered through comparative calms. In possession of a church of its own its course began to bend over what Mrs. Eddy has termed "the ever-agitated but healthful waters of truth." London, like some great colossus, slowly waking up to the fact that a new religious body had sprung up in the midst of its misery and sin, was at first lazily curious. Presently as it began to realize that this new religion had come not only to preach but to work, it became restless.

These were the days when the legend grew into being that Christian Science was a society craze. Probably a more completely foolish statement never was made. Even in London where, if anywhere, it would be true, it may safely be said that at least ninety-five per cent of the male members of the churches are engaged in the ordinary vocations of their sex. And what a society craze should be doing in the manufacturing towns and great seaports, where next to London the chief strength of the movement lies, no one has ever attempted to explain. The fact is, that the movement in England, just as elsewhere, represents a huge democracy, a democracy composed of every stratum of society, a democracy welded together by a mutual respect, a unity of *purpose*, a common understanding of *Principle*.

The days in Bryanston Street were stirring ones. Slowly at first, but with ever-increasing momentum, the healing work was building up the movement, and in spite of constant withdrawal of members to start other churches, the meetings grew fuller and fuller. It was then that Second Church was formed, and started its services in Queen's Road, from whence it has removed them to Bond Street. It was then that the churches in Edinburgh and Dublin were organized. Lady Victoria Murray went to begin the work in Manchester, and Mrs. Butler, who, as Miss Ramsay, had astonished the country by coming out ahead of all the men of her year in the Classical Tripos at Cambridge, opened the meetings in that town. Even then, judged by numbers, the workers were a tiny band, and many a night as they passed out of the church into the dark streets of the great sin-burdened city, after listening to the reading of the Bible and hearing the testimonies of those healed, it must have been with the remembrance of the words, "the harvest truly is great, but the laborers are few."

When the congregation at Bryanston Street overflowed the seats and aisles, and had begun to sit on the steps of the platform and the stairs down to the hall, another move was made. A site was purchased in Sloane Terrace, on which the buildings of First Church are at present being erected. It was said at the time that to obtain a freehold in the center of London would be impossible, and indeed, the story of the difficulties overcome, the many disappointments, and the final triumph is a most interesting one. It must suffice here to chronicle the success. Half the ground was occupied by a disused Wesleyan chapel, capable of seating eight hundred people, and in this the services were held while the first half of the new church was being erected on the adjoining land.

After the move from Bryanston Street the work increased more rapidly than ever. Third Church in London was formed, the church at Richmond, and the Association at Bromley. Meantime the other churches were expanding in every direction. Out of Dublin had been formed Belfast; out of Manchester, Liverpool. In most of the large towns, in innumerable villages, and in private

THE EMPIRE OF THE NORTHERN PRAIRIES

BY

ALLEN REED

a quarter of a century ago General Greeley said, "That country here is a desert, fit for Indians and animals to roam."

was referring to North and South Dakota, a region still generally known as the Northwest, because in early days it was the northwestern portion of the developed area of the United States, just as Ohio was once considered the West. But the real Northwest to-day is Washington, Oregon, Idaho and Montana.

In that empire called a desert by General Greeley a million or more of people are dwelling to-day in prosperity, several railroads are extending themselves to serve every section, numberless cities and towns are springing up, equipped with all manner of modern improvements, while industrial, educational and moral progress is finding a high, if not the highest expression.

Consult a map of the region between the Mississippi and the Rockies and it will be seen that the railroad development is becoming almost as great as in the more eastern states. Seven railroads have in North Dakota a mileage of close to four thousand. One road alone has a dozen branch lines running from its east-and-west main line northward to the Canadian border, and ten more branches spread out through North and South Dakota. Still another road swings up through that district with approximately the same system of service; and another is building straight through to the Pacific and throwing out feeders in both these states, and building new towns on the created-to-order plan which has in it so much that is picturesque and characteristic of the organized achievement of the age.

While Greeley was not right as to the potentiality of this section, yet, in the words of the president of one of these great railroads, "We have always considered, until within a few years, that nearly all that portion of the country is good for little else but cattle-raising. To-day we find that it is good for wheat, for flax, for oats and for barley, with plenteous coal for fuel and ample deposits of building material."

It was in 1893 that the development began on anything like a large scale. The population of North Dakota at that time was one hundred and sixty-five thousand. It is now five hundred thousand, and growing so fast that its citizens are looking to the million mark as a probability of less than a decade. Land in those days could be had for the asking. It cost \$14 for the Land Office fee to secure a 160-acre homestead. Now this same land is worth \$20 to \$40 (and often even more) an acre, produces fifteen to twenty bushels of wheat, ten to twenty-two bushels of flax, twenty-five to ninety bushels of oats, twenty-five to fifty bushels of barley per acre; and of homestead land there is so little left that it is not worthy of discussion.

The growth of the Northwest is due to the railroads, but it is not philanthropy that leads them to bring population and prosperity to these new areas. James J. Hill says every settler who goes into his country is worth \$300 a year to the road in the traffic he will create, by which he means that every farmer, every cattle man, every merchant will market his commodities, receive over the road from other sections things he consumes, and travel and cause travel which will average the \$300 per year in revenue to the road.

The system adopted by all these railroads now in developing the new country

cultural implements in the Northwest and has a Masonic Temple and library second only to one other in America. Grand Forks is Fargo's rival in enterprise and growth, with great flour, wool and lumber mills.

Bismarck, the capital, is the leading port on the Missouri. Railroad shops support prosperous Mandan, just across the river from the seat of state government. Jamestown, in the artesian section of the James River, is a growing railroad headquarters and trading center. The live-stock industry is the staff of life to Minot and Dickinson, two vigorous young cities already in their thousands as to population, a statement also true of Grafton, Valley City, Devil's Lake, Casselton, Hillsboro, Langdon, Lisbon, Mayville, Park River, Wahpeton and doubtless half a dozen more, so rapidly does population increase. Minot, for instance, about ten years ago had a population of four hundred. To-day it has six thousand.

Devil's Lake is a city that is particularly interesting because at that point is a body of inland salt water on the shores of which are held annually one of the largest Chautauquas in the country. Granville seven years ago was not on the map. There was only a little railroad station there. Now the town has one thousand two hundred to one thousand five hundred people, and it takes six to eight men to do the work which the station agent finds on his hands. And this same station agent who, wise in his generation, took up government land a few years ago, sold his 160 acres recently for some \$12,000.

These cities and towns are laid out with a view to the future. Their streets are broad and they are planned to bring things to a convenient center. Stores, hotels, banks are built with the same idea of making the place, as a whole, look well, and as people who go to those sections usually have sufficient capital to start right, there is little or no evidence of the pioneer poverty which found expression in the haphazard days of the early West in ramshackle structures scattered along a single street with saloons on every corner and all along between. In fact you will find no saloons at all in North Dakota. On the map of the United States which the newspapers have *recently been printing* it is a big white spot,

marked "All Dry," with South Dakota twenty-five per cent dry. Out there they are fond of saying that progress, prohibition and prosperity are three terms which go hand in hand. They say that prohibition pays because it brings in the right class of people, puts prosperity upon a permanent basis, and prevents the appearance of undesirable elements in politics and social life.

The wealth of the state, while largely agricultural, is still to a very great extent in live stock. It was Mr. Hill who introduced into North Dakota the idea of breeding cattle properly. He distributed breeding stock in various sections and the wisdom of the settler went on to develop an industry which has proved a very great source of profit, not only in beef for market but in dairying. Nearly all the good farms in the state maintain dairies and are sending their product to be churned into butter at the several creameries which are operated under citizens' ownership. All the butter that North Dakota can make markets at from twenty-five to forty cents per pound. Poultry-raising is also very profitable and is being developed with the intelligence which marks the general character of the state.

North Dakota has few if any forests, and must depend upon coal for fuel. Fortunately the western section of the state is underlaid with enormous deposits of lignite coal which can be secured at the mine for about \$1 a ton, while it costs the farmer not over \$2 to buy and haul it to his home. All over the state this coal is sold for \$3 or \$4 a ton, and is excellent for domestic purposes and for steam. It is, however, not particularly good for shipment as it disintegrates rapidly when exposed to the sun and air. But it can be compressed by hydraulic pressure into "briquettes," which are easy for shipment and burn excellently.

There are about three hundred financial institutions. The word "about" is used advisedly to indicate the possibility of a few dozen banks and trust companies having come into substantial existence since the last available reports. The total deposits of these institutions aggregate about \$30,000,000, about a third of the annual income the people of the state enjoy from agriculture, live stock, coal and manufactures. The value of the farm

lands of the state is over a third of a billion. In production of flax the state stands first in the union, second in wheat, eighth in barley. In fact about half the total flax crop of the country is raised in North Dakota, which, when it joins statistics with South Dakota and Minnesota, shares in the honor of producing eighty-eight per cent of the total yield of the country.

It is surprising how many manufacturing establishments there are in North Dakota—something like fifteen hundred, for factories multiply rapidly, especially those that turn out concrete and primary requisites of building or utilize native raw material. The capital invested in manufactures is about \$7,000,000. Of course flour is first but printing is second, indicative of the intelligence of the population but not surprising, for the people have both brains and initiative. Illiteracy has as little place in this prairie empire as have laziness and immorality. North Dakota has its university, its normal schools and its agricultural school, and altogether spends annually a million and three-quarters for schools.

South Dakota is another land of interesting development with general characteristics very similar to North Dakota. In fact the story of its development as respects country and town, railroad and

bank, is almost identical in detail with that of North Dakota.

Aberdeen, for instance, which in 1887 had only 3,000 population, now has nearly 10,000; Lead had in 1890 only 2,500, it has now 7,500; Sioux Falls, the largest city in the state, has over 15,000 population; Watertown about 4,000; Huron, 3,000, and Pierre, the capital, about 3,200, the whole state showing a population by the second census of 1900, of 401,570, of which, by the way, only 14,000 were unable to speak English. The State University is at Vermilion and there are denominational colleges at Huron, Redfield and Yankton.

Yet it is unbelievably new. Sioux Falls, for instance, the first permanent settlement in the state when settled in 1857 by people from Iowa, was several times all but depopulated by the Indians. Five years later there was the famous Sioux war, when the town was abandoned. Three years after that Fort Dakota was built, and in 1870 the town again sprang up until now it is the metropolis of the state, with factories and quarries and valuable water power furnished by a ninety-foot fall in the Big Sioux River. Lead is a city that is well known to the world because it is in the heart of the Black Hills. Extensive gold stamp mills are located there.

her farm lands alone is a billion dollars. The total of all her annual income, from agriculture, lumber, manufactures, etc., is about half a billion dollars. Unexpectedly the largest item is manufacturing, the value of her manufactured products being a third of a billion, or nearly twice the annual income she derives from agriculture, though she stands first of all the states in wheat, second in barley, flax and mushrooms — *mushrooms*, mark you — fourth in oats, fifth in sugar from beets, and sixth in rye. In fact she seems to have five times as much invested in manufactures as in banking, the capitalization of her financial institutions being published as \$32,000,000 and her manufactures \$167,000,000, which latter figure is about what her farms earn annually.

The story of continuous development is told in the career of such communities as Crookston, which will be able to point out shortly that it has more than doubled the thirty-four hundred population given by the census of 1890; Moorhead, with a growth that has added two hundred per cent or more to the two thousand population reported in the latter part of the century just past; St. Cloud, which is adding constantly to her nine or ten thousand; Warren, that has doubled and more since the 1890 census; Remedji, International Falls, etc., municipalities that express not only the potentiality of the country as a prosperity-creating area, but the interpretation modern men place upon opportunities for organizing communities upon the most up-to-date basis, where encouragement is given to residential, business and industrial growth by making the place attractive to home-seekers as well as wealth-seekers. International Falls, for instance, is so new as hardly to have even a place on the maps, and yet it has a water power the rival of Niagara itself.

And this same spirit permeates the section further west where, in eastern Montana, they are breaking up the old cattle ranches into farms on which wheat, oats, barley, potatoes, corn, onions, hay, forage and fruit yield an annual income of nearly twelve millions a year and the value of farm property is close to a hundred and fifty millions. Montana leads all the states in rye, estimating the amount grown per acre, while only Wash-

ington exceeds it in the amount of wheat grown per acre and only two states in the amount of oats and barley per acre. In corn, not supposedly a Montana crop, the yield is the same per acre as in Iowa.

The railroads have begun to show a strong disposition to pursue the same aggressive development policy in Montana that they have pursued in the other sections of the Northwest. The state already has between three and four thousand miles of road divided among fourteen different companies.

Unlike the states previously dealt with in this article, there are vast tracts of government land yet unoccupied in Montana. It is indeed very recently that the agricultural possibilities of the state have become recognized, and from this time on it is safe to say there will be a steady incoming of settlers and town-builders.

That the development forces are already at work is evident from the growth shown by such places as Billings, which had under a thousand population when the census man took the figures in 1890, but which is now running up past the five thousand mark, with the possibility of this being an underestimate, so rapidly does its population grow. Another place that shows this same tendency to multiply population is Miles City, which could not quite touch one thousand in 1890 but would now sue any one for libel who did not credit it with several thousand — three thousand at the very lowest. Live-stock interests make the prosperity of Miles City, and in spite of that agricultural era which has dawned in eastern Montana, the live-stock industry is still colossal. With six million sheep, a million cattle, three hundred thousand horses owned in the state and five million dollars' worth of wool shipped out of the state annually, the day of decadence does not seem to be quite ready to dawn.

Montana's population of about a third of a million can be largely increased with generous support to those who know how to till the soil, conduct useful enterprises, facilitate banking, organize and educate the population. A large portion of the area that can readily be converted into wealth-producing acreage lies ready for the plow as soon as the new railroading which is under way shall have begun to exert its developing influences.

original and marks an important step in monumental portrait statues.

Washington has come by time and thought to occupy a historical rather than personal position in the national mind. So it was the ideal Washington, the typical historical president, the apotheosized Father of his Country, the commander of the American forces, rather than a realistic portrait of him as a man and citizen that the sculptor wished to represent. To overcome the peculiarities of a not too artistic costume, he threw about the figure a big military cloak, which allows large forms and an almost architectural treatment. Washington stands firmly on both legs with his hands clasped on the hilt of a massive conventionalized sword of state. The statue is immensely simple; it is grand but sufficiently personal. It is a masterly conception of a great man carried out in a great way.

A suggestion of the sculptor's intention may be read between the lines written by him in his "History of American Sculpture," analyzing the work of Henry Kirke Brown's Equestrian Washington in Union Square, New York: "The impression of serene dignity which the statue wears like an enveloping mantle is due in no small measure to the fact that like the hero's legendary character, it has no glaring defects to catch and annoy the attention. In it is no artificial vehemence, no attempt at picturesqueness. We find instead, composure and equilibrium. Nowhere is there harshness or meagerness of handling to attract the gaze. By both what he has put in and what he has had the good sense to leave out, the artist has succeeded in giving us here 'the power and poetry of the realized ideal,' of conveying to us the impression of a great man." The sculptor in thus estimating his own earlier critical ideas, presents to us a monumental Washington, stripped of petty details or incidental suggestion, but expressed in the large by few but pointed characteristics, by ample mass and dignified sculptural planes. The treatment of the figure is almost archaically simple in its reserve and abnegation of details which are usually considered essential to portrait statues. He succeeds thereby in creating an impressive and sufficiently abstracted personality, a por-

trait monument of commanding dignity worthy of our venerated first president, the defender of American liberties. It is quite as original in the domain of the full length portrait statue (a very different task) as is the group of "The Blind" in its field, and gives evidence of the sculptor's varied ability to grasp new problems in a new and effective manner of thought and treatment.

For many years the work of Mr. Taft's studio has been given largely to portrait busts, and the list includes many names of importance in various walks of life. The following may be mentioned as they come to mind: Governor Oglesby, recently unveiled at the Memorial Hall of the Grand Army of the Republic in Chicago; General Logan, for the same destination; the writers, Isaac Zangwill, Henry B. Fuller, Hamlin Garland and Joaquin Miller; the painter, Ralph Clarkson; the late Senator C. B. Farwell of Illinois; the late W. B. Jenney, architect; the late President Chapin of Beloit College; Judge Cooley of Ann Arbor, Michigan; Clem and J. M. Studebaker and James Oliver of South Bend, Indiana; the poet Longfellow, for the University of Illinois, and many others. These are all good likenesses, well modeled and finely characterized, and are the medium through which he is more generally known to the public.

Quite in another vein, but still suggesting new ideas of design and treatment, is a sketch model for a projected panel of immense length for the waiting-room of the new Pennsylvania Station in Washington. It represents the states of which Washington is, so to speak, the composite type, welcoming the traveler. Each state is a charming female figure bearing a shield on which is her coat of arms. These shields are so arranged that they make a decorative movement complementing the low, flat curve of the ceiling. It is planned to treat the panel in polychrome so as to help bring out the modeling, which will be placed at a very considerable height above the eye, and make the meaning more evident, as well as to add to the panel the interest and decorative value that is inherent in color itself. This should be a very novel decoration and it is hoped the management will see their way to have it consummated. A similar panel will oppose it at the other

end of the vast hall, completing the idea begun in the first panel, of the meetings and partings of life.

The city beautiful, under Mr. D. H. Burnham's able generalship, is taking active form. A feature of it less generally discussed is the introduction of water into the Midway from Lake Michigan and connecting with Washington Park at the western end. Beautiful bridges would span this lagoon and Mr. Taft has dreamed out a comprehensive scheme for the sculptural decoration as a whole. While his idea may or may not come to be carried out, it is reasonable that there should be some comprehensive scheme that would include the various sculptural details. The old Greek legend of the deluge and the repopling of the earth by Deukalion and Pyrrha has suggested to Mr. Taft a grandiose fountain, where amid splashing waters, strange figures of men and women emerge from the formless rocks and struggle with one another and with the elements in an unknown

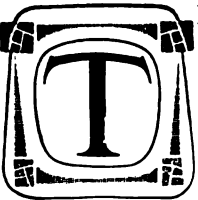
world. Then follow the three bridges dedicated respectively to the Sciences, the Arts and Religion, and finally, to close the view, the sculptor would erect, with the Cottage Grove avenue bridge as a background, his long-meditated "Fountain of Time." Thus the Midway would offer not only a decorative whole of great beauty but a harmonious sculptural cycle, a poem of humanity's development from the earth-born savage, through the material to the artistic and finally the spiritual, with the panorama of time at the end as an *envoi*.

Nothing can give the reader a better idea of the activity and quality of Mr. Taft's mind than this dream of monumental beauty. Such things must be done by human agencies. The renown of Chicago as a modern city of culture and refinement may securely rest on just such realized dreams. Chicago must look to it that her prophets are recognized before it is too late. The Columbian Exposition was a dream. Was it not worth while?

THE MODERN PIONEER

BY

A. E. DICKEY



THE word pioneer is generally associated in our minds with the Indian and the wild cat, with homespun, a dipped candle, hard cider, a log cabin, but above all with the primeval forest. Greatly different from these are the early associations of the modern pioneer. His Indian is bloodthirsty only when drunk, his wild cat enemy the speculator and claim jumper, his ever present associate the real estate boomer. As the special business of the old pioneer was clearing the forest, and his life began with that, so the life of the modern pioneer begins with that most peculiar development of modern civilization, the real estate boom.

A boom is where men and values alike

go mad. Doubling one's money in a week, poor men growing rich in a few months, are not infrequent incidents. The air is full of excitement. Every one makes money, has money, spends it. Prices of necessities are fabulously high, but no one questions them. He can go out and realize speculative profits equal to ten times the difference during the time necessary to argue down the bargain. The favorite subject of the real estate speculator is the town lot and here the boomer has his maddest sway, for he will plat tiny villages into four townships, and buy and sell lots that are under water or upon perpendicular hillsides in blissful ignorance of even the outward appearance of his rapidly passing property.

And upon town lots many booms — witness, Los Angeles, Seattle, Chattanooga — have exclusively fed. In the

own as a residence, sleep within it one or two nights in the year, and when reckoning day came swear to a continuous residence.

The bulk of those who took these claims were thus by no means farmers. Doctors and lawyers, preachers and undertakers, all assumed the rôle of the pioneer farmer. Nor was the movement confined to men. Married women were not eligible, but perhaps the strangest of all the strange sights of the boom was the unmarried female school teacher, far past the age when popular prejudice permits her willingly to be single, going fifteen or even thirty miles from town, often living solitary and alone, braving all the unknown dangers of a new country in order to obtain that prize package so dazzling to every modern pioneer, a quarter section of northwestern prairie.

Among these adventurers, however, another type was slipping in, the Ole Jansens and Torger Torgersons from the old country, as well as the plain American farmer from the new. These came to make a home rather than a fortune. They built sod houses rather than shacks, and lived within them rather than attempt to grow rich at town lot operations twenty-five miles away. Even these, however, were affected more or less by the boom spirit. The fever was in the air and the most stolid Scandinavian could not fail to feel something of its exultations and its disappointments.

The atmosphere of a boom is difficult to describe, though unmistakably felt. With stock and wheat gamblers there are always bulls and bears, always an equal number who desire to pull the market down. With the real estate boomer the movement is always upward, he never sells short, never expects to buy back the same property at a less price. And the one great distinguishing characteristic of the modern pioneer has been the feverish belief that his own boom would never end. He always offers some good reason why his expectations can not fail, his particular embryo city can not meet the fate of so many sister cities in other new countries. And so the first thought and life of the modern pioneer divided between two things; the one, the boom with its "Mudge & Fudge Addition to Budgeville," its "Prices advance \$50

with each Third Lot Sold"; the other, his amateur farming operations.

And above all was his optimism concentrated upon the most fabulous stories as to what the prairies could produce. Most of these pioneers farmed upon the principle that they need only scratch the ground, scatter grain to the winds, and then gather golden harvests. And for a few years this was almost literally true, the first six crops harvested giving almost fabulous results. These were the country's first tests and so naturally it was believed that the twenty to thirty-five bushel wheat average could continue forever. Thus the life of these modern pioneers differed indeed from the plodding earnestness of their ancient predecessors who cleared the Wabash valley. The life of the early prairie farmer was at fever heat, spent in talking the perpetual town lot, in counting upon paper the wealth he supposed he had, in dreams of greater wealth to come.

And then came a hot wind which did not do much real damage, and a few grasshoppers which did no damage at all, and the great top-heavy boom collapsed. The town lot values which were never much except bubble evaporated in a night; they completely disappeared as factors in northwestern history. But the farm land with all its potentiality and productiveness was still there, and to it the whole life of the modern pioneer was transferred.

For several years the impression almost prevailed that the farm land was as fatally useless as the town lot. By a singular coincidence the crop average and the boom had dropped together, and the six years following 1884 gave only about half the wheat average of the six years which had preceded. And thus mingled with the wail of the town-lot speculator rose a tremendous cry of crop failure. The disappointed boomers left by the hundred, they frightened away further immigrants, and they defamed the great prairies until, when the Dakotas came into the Union, one great reason for the determined effort to change the name of North Dakota was that the very word Dakota had come to be popularly regarded as a synonym for failure. And it was a literal fact that for years following the boom, the great prairie lands could

hardly be sold at any price; there simply were no purchasers to buy.

In the midst of all this the true modern pioneers struggled on. Many of them stayed only because their property was engulfed and they could not leave. Times were hard, the price of wheat fell one-half, and those who remained talked hardship and failure more incessantly than those who had gone. And there was at least great mental hardship. Scores of deserted shacks on the farms and hundreds of signs "For Rent" in the towns, the universal talk of loss and ruin, made every one believe he was ruined.

And strangely enough it took ten full years for these pioneers to begin to realize that in the midst of this much-heralded disaster no one was starving, that there were no poorhouses, that from the very crops which they themselves were advertising to a critical world as failures they were making money; that with the economy possible on the northwestern prairies there was a large permanent profit even at ten bushels to the acre, and the most dismally heralded failures were yielding thirteen. And with this fact followed the necessary corollary that when the bumper crops came, as after 1891 they began to do every few years, a single crop would often pay several times over for the land. And then the long lane turned, and the wave of adversity against which the ungodly had sworn and the pious had prayed for so many years, rolled back.

With the discovery that there was profit even in so-called crop failures, several other factors combined to redeem the modern pioneer from his Slough of Despond. The first of these was the introduction of the crop payment plan of farm sales. This plan occupied a place not dissimilar to the clearing-house certificate in the recent panic, a solution of the problem how to sell and be paid when the purchaser has little or no money. In a crop payment sale, the purchaser agrees to pay for his farm by turning over one-half of each crop raised until the sale price with interest is fully paid. Few gold fields have produced as much real wealth as this scheme of sale. It served to put land in motion that before could not be sold at any price and it gave thousands of farmers with little or no

pecuniary resources the opportunity to become substantial landowners.

The second factor making for the new prosperity may be termed "the discovery of flax." For years there had been a few scattered flax fields, but it was only in the middle nineties that the northwestern pioneer awoke to the discovery that linseed oil was of a more truly golden hue, not only than the wheat field, but than any gold-bearing quartz California ever saw. And so the endless golden yellow of the fields of wheat gave place to the blue flowers in August and the tinkling bells in September, of the flax field.

Those who have never heard the ringing of the flax bells have missed a truly wonderful sensation. The round seed pods, smaller than peas, which contain the seed, give a faint metallic sound which as one drives or walks through a field, setting thousands in motion, seems like myriads of infinitesimal bells tinkling so faintly as to be all but inaudible. Nor is the mere sight of a flax field in the mellow August soon to be forgotten. Imagine a hundred-acre field, filled with flowers of a blue more delicate than violets. And of its profitable character one illustration will suffice. In June, 1900, Ole Jannsen bought a hundred and sixty acres in the heart of the great flax belt for \$10 an acre on the crop payment plan. Ole "broke up" that fall and the next spring a hundred and thirty-five acres and planted it in flax. In round numbers, he threshed in the fall eighteen and one-half bushels to the acre; sold it for \$1.39½ a bushel; total, \$3,500; a little more than twice enough to pay for his land out of his first crop. Not only was the flax immensely profitable itself but it removed from the country the stigma, "one crop country."

Since then other crops have rapidly come into favor. Twenty-five years ago no one thought of raising corn on the northwest prairies. Now South Dakota and southern Minnesota are becoming famous for their corn, and even North Dakota is beginning to raise it very profitably. The corn limit has for a long time moved steadily north at a rate of about six miles a year, and thus more and more of the country is coming to raise it successfully. Besides which a great line of varied feed crops has developed which has

brought the Northwest countless dollars for its cattle and other animals.

Advantages other than agricultural also contributed. The bogie stories of weather and blizzards were lived down. A network of railroads spread out over the country and some of the finest trains in America, especially the Northern Pacific's North Coast Limited, began to run over them. Educationally the modern pioneer was faring better still. The northwestern prairie states spend more on the education of each child than any others in the Union, and yet owing to their liberal school-land endowment can do it with decreasing taxation. Thus all things combined to make the prairies the "homeseeker's paradise," and the homeseekers gradually found this out.

And so with much stress of mind and labor, after years of hardship, some of it real, more of it only imaginary, the modern northwestern pioneer came into his own. The old speculative days, days of feverish excitement and paper values, never returned. In their place came an era of great and permanent prosperity when new settlers flocked in, not expecting to grow rich and depart, but to make homes. The northwestern prairie had indeed been tried by fire. For years the world thought it was found wanting and held it so cheap that the fact that it could ever swing into favor again is a striking solid proof of its permanent worth. Better proof still is the prosperity of its citizens; their daily life of industry and success. Concrete examples are the best evidence, and while there are probably as many different types as there are townships, a glimpse of two families recently visited by the writer will perhaps serve better than any amount of generalities to give an idea of the Minnesota and Dakota pioneer of to-day.

William Harker lives with his wife and eight children in the very heart of the great flax belt. He arrived in 1893, when the hard times were considered at their worst. He had a few emigrant's effects, and after buying two old horses there remained just fifty cents. He filed on a claim about ten miles from town and built a shack out of pieces of other shacks picked up on the prairie. The first winter was one of great hardship, but William was a man of strength and nerve. He

even rented for the next season a neighboring piece on shares. In 1894 was one of the much-heralded crop failures, but William paid his running debts, made his shack into a small house and acquired credit enough to buy two more horses and six cattle and live through the winter with comparative comfort. The bonanza crop of 1895 put him more than on his feet, and thereafter his progress was rapid. He bought new land on crop payments. To-day he owns twelve hundred acres, has as fine a lot of horses and cattle as can be seen in the Northwest, and his net wealth over all his debts is at least \$40,000.

Harker believes in a steady, sober, somber life of industry. There are no signs of pleasure or gaiety about his farm. He does not spare himself or his youngest child, and he is steadily, successfully, fatally making money. A day's visit with him presents the most startling evidence of what a plain American farmer, with no education beyond the sixth grade, can do. Yet the lack of anything except incessant toil day after day has a very depressing effect upon the visitor, an effect not materially relieved by the remembrance of how many parallels one can find in circles that consider themselves far above this simple, hardworking farmer. Some day perhaps he or some of the many farmers like him will awake to the knowledge that one of the chief pleasures of money is not in the making or hoarding, but in reasonably and properly spending. And yet judged by most of the standards accepted to-day no one can say that William is not a success.

From Harker it is in a way a revelation to run forty miles west and spend a day with the Garretts, another set of pioneers. The Garretts came in the old patriarchal way, father, mother and four grown children. They all took government claims and they have since bought until the family together aggregate about the same property as Harker. But they lead a very different life. Father and Mother Garrett live in a good, substantial house in the center of their little settlement. They have a graphophone and even a secondhand piano. They have telephones, which they themselves have strung across for ten miles, following wherever possible the tops of wire fence posts and running up arch fashion over

the gateways. They and their near neighbors have a baseball team, playing hotly contested games, and, judging from another settlement near by, football will reach them before long. They dance on Saturday nights, they have a debating club in their schoolhouse and they will turn out a rousing, spirited crowd for a political meeting, which will make any young campaign orator glad to go there. They live an ideal, successful, American farmer life. They mix work and play in a reasonable proportion. Considering their opportunities and the number of able-bodied men in the family, they have not done as well materially as Harker, but they have steadily made money and may be offered as the ideal type of successful modern pioneers.

There is one other class of pioneer popularly thought to be characteristic of the Northwest, the owner of the great bonanza farm, thousands of acres in extent. Several such farms do exist and they sound well as advertising, but the

real sturdy strength of the northwestern country is in the comparatively small farmer who owns from a quarter-section to a section of land, which he has slowly worked out for himself by tilling the soil and with the beneficent help of the crop payment plan under which he might buy. His life is what he has made it: Harker's life of labor, the Garretts' life of labor and fun; but with the great gifts the prairie soil has given him, he is a poor specimen indeed if he has not prospered. To him the black dirt of the prairie has been beautiful, for he has discovered how beautiful and useful he can make it; the dried prairie grasses are fine as gold, for he has turned them into gold by feeding them to his cattle. Considering the quality of the soil, the ease under which it can be cultivated, and the liberality with which it can be bought, no other farmer has ever had the opportunity of the modern northwestern pioneer. His present prosperity will testify how well he has improved it.

CREATING A NEW DOMINION

BY

ALEXANDER HUME FORD

WAS one—perhaps the only—American, who stood “on guard” with several thousand “Colonials” to watch New Zealand at that moment when she dropped her title of

“Colony” and became by royal proclamation a “Dominion.” The proclamation was read by the governor from the steps of the parliamentary buildings, at Wellington. There was no enthusiasm; a few cheers fell still-born, and the crowd of merely curious onlookers melted away in silence. It may have been the British way of taking the “affair” seriously, but judging from the tone of the press and the comments of the New Zealanders everywhere, I judged that the making of the “Dominion” had been the work of

one man, as the making of the colony had been the work of the late ex-Premier “Dick” Seddon.

The man who created the dominion was Sir J. G. Ward, familiarly called “Joe” by his colleagues, to show their contempt for new titles. It is the pride of New Zealand that “Dick” Seddon was “Dick” to the last, and never once thought of accepting a title. In fact I was informed by more than one of his admirers on Dominion Day, that had “Dick” lived long enough, New Zealand would have been in time proclaimed a Republic, or at least an independent-socialistic empire, with “Dick” the publican at the head of it.

When Ward became premier, after the death of Seddon, in 1906, he yearned, say the New Zealanders, to do something to counteract the effect of his new title and

make himself forever popular with his constituents, so on April 17 last, at the colonial conference in London, he sprung the proposition of making New Zealand a dominion, and followed up the campaign single-handed until at last parliament and the King goodnaturedly acquiesced and promised the yeoman knight that his request should be gratified. No one in New Zealand, however, seemed to endorse the change with any marked degree of enthusiasm; in fact the newspapers ridiculed the idea and even went so far as to protest against the day and occasion being made a public holiday. Even on September 26, Dominion Day, they urged that in future Labor Day and Dominion Day be merged into one. The whole affair was treated largely as a cleverly laid scheme for the political aggrandizement of Mr. Ward, as he is still called in New Zealand in spite of his title.

On my arrival in New Zealand, press and public were glorifying the fact that at last the colony could boast of a full, round million in population. The remark was everywhere made that it mattered little whether the land of these million souls was dubbed colony or dominion; it always had been to the inhabitants New Zealand, rechristened by "Dick" Seddon "God's Country," it is true, but always New Zealand to the New Zealanders. Much more space was given in the press to the plans and workings of assisted emigration from "Home"—Great Britain—than to any such trifling discussion as the creation of a dominion. The immigration plans were at least practical, if not enormously successful, and meant some material progress to the country. True, only some thirty-three thousand persons had entered the colony during the year, while some twenty-four thousand had left it, leaving a net gain of but nine thousand, not including the natural increase of births over deaths, which is exceedingly large in New Zealand. In fact everything of public practical interest, including the campaign of an American "boomer" to raise funds for Y. M. C. A. buildings in all the large cities, received more attention from press and public than did the spasmodic efforts of the various local bodies throughout the islands to raise enthusiasm against the coming of Dominion Day and its proposed elaborate

celebrations, which in many instances failed to materialize.

However, I determined to be in the capital city on the day of days, and in fact arrived there some time in advance of the auspicious event. Here too, public interest seemed to be sidetracked by the actions of some striking workmen in this "Land without a Strike," who refused to accept the rulings of their own arbitration court because said rulings were against them. I began at last to wonder if Dominion Day would be celebrated independently in this "workingman's paradise," or would it go over and be amalgamated with that holiday of holidays in New Zealand, Labor Day.

In Wellington, at least, thanks to the efforts of the entire official entourage, Dominion Day did go off quietly, sedately and without a hitch. Everything was done decently and in order. There was no noise, no drunkenness, and no rowdiness. There was a mild curiosity, for in spite of their apparent indifference, most New Zealanders had gotten it through their heads that as time rolled on Dominion Day, September 26, 1907, would assume its proportionate place in the history of the land they love, and that that place would be a prominent one. As the more advanced of the Socialistic party expressed it, there is only one more important step for New Zealand to take, and that will be a celebration concerning which they will not read any advance notice from the steps of the Royal Exchange in London!

All the public buildings and the leading newspaper edifices in Wellington were illuminated for the occasion, and on the morning of Dominion Day train after train rolled in laden with visitors, volunteer militia and young boys in uniform from various semi-military and denominational schools. By nine o'clock the main street of the New Zealand capital began to assume a gala day appearance. In the little park before the parliamentary buildings groups began to gather, and across the street facing this public square, the houses seemed to have been all rented and filled for the occasion with dark-skinned Maoris. These aborigines took the celebrations sedately, but seemed to enjoy them more than did their white brothers. About half-past ten o'clock the

garrison band and guard of honor from Alexandria Barracks approached, and within the next fifteen minutes the little park was fairly well crowded. There was no jostling or striving for space. The vice-regal party drove up silently in carriages and mounted the steps of the parliamentary buildings. Sir Joseph Ward, premier, made a few remarks, then Lord Plunket stood forth at the head of the steps and read the King's proclamation:

"WHEREAS, We have, on the petition of the members of the Legislative Council and the House of Representatives of Our Colony of New Zealand, determined that the title of the Dominion of New Zealand shall be substituted for that of the Colony of New Zealand as the designation of the said Colony, We have, therefore, by and with the advice of the Privy Council, thought fit to issue this, our Royal Proclamation, and We do order, declare, and command that on and after the 26th day of September, 1907, the said Colony of New Zealand and the territory belonging thereto shall be called and known by the title of the Dominion of New Zealand, and We hereby give Our commands to all public departments accordingly. "EDWARD REX."

New Zealand was now a dominion, and Sir Joseph Ward then stepped forward to call for three cheers. These were feebly given. Some one called for three cheers for the King, and still the throng of thousands responded *sotto voce*, as though they were one and all reluctant to give up the title of colony. I verily believe, however, that had some one dared to call for cheers for the late Premier Seddon, the air would have been rent with a maddening outburst. Kings and events far away do not appeal to the New Zealander.

As the vice-regal party drove away again, the guns from the forts and warships began thundering, and in every school the children respectfully saluted the flag.

Perhaps the event of the day most enjoyed by the populace was the presentation of colors and a general review of the troops and school cadet corps at a park upon the outskirts of the city. Veterans of the Boer campaign marched by the admiring crowds, and their colors—or the King's—were blessed by the Bishop of Wellington, but neither they nor the consecration aroused an iota of the enthusiasm and applause bestowed by the populace upon the future hope of New Zealand: the school cadets. The smaller the little soldiers, the louder the tumult of

admiration. In the evening a torchlight procession was attempted, but that acme of political fanfare, thoroughly indigenous to America, failed to arouse enthusiasm in New Zealand. The masses were battling for admission at the Town Hall where Madame Albani, a famous American vocalist, was to lead in the singing of "God Save the King." Every one wanted to hear Albani, and for the time being the final celebrations of Dominion Day were sidetracked that all who could might crowd into the spacious Town Hall. So, after all, it was the voice of an American that sounded last and sweetest in the ears of the New Zealanders, welcoming the advent of the new dominion, and making those who heard her at least glad that there had been a Dominion Day.

The new dominion has been heralded throughout the world as the "Workingman's Paradise," and in a sense it is. By law the common day laborer and field hand must be paid \$2 for every eight hours of work. The skilled laborer, however, who may have spent years at apprenticeship and in technical training schools, is glad to receive twenty to thirty per cent more for his labor. The employer must by law employ only union men at union wages. If an employee is killed or injured, even by his own negligence, his employer must pay heavy damages. If a budding capitalist employs two or more men or women in his business, his is a factory, even though it be a bank, and must come under the exacting laws that protect the factory hands. If it is a small business in one large room, so much the worse for the employer. If one of his hands is a repairer and the other a salesman, he must close two afternoons a week, for his is both a shop and a factory, and the half-holiday laws must be obeyed to the letter in this workingman's paradise.

I was astonished to find throughout the new dominion that outside of a few commodities peculiar to the country, everything is much dearer than in any of the markets of America. The climate is always damp, therefore vegetables do not thrive and must be imported. And everything pays customs duty before entering New Zealand. The price of bread has risen steadily since Dominion Day, and should wool and butter go down in the London market the new dominion with

its high tariff wall about it, would face a crisis such as even poor old "Dick" Seddon was never called upon to extricate the colony from. New Zealand relies upon her export of butter and wool to keep up the present seemingly fictitious prices of land, and should Siberia glut the London market with dairy products, which she threatens to do, and the Argentine bring down the price of wool, there would be little comfort to the New Zealanders in the reflection that an independent dominion was battling for its very existence instead of a dependent colony. The results would be the same.

The new dominion is larger in area than Great Britain and not so large as Great Britain and Ireland combined. She is fifteen to twenty times the area of our Hawaiian Islands and as mountainous. Her population is eight times that of Hawaii, and the value of her exports twice as great, that is \$75,000,000 for New Zealand against \$38,000,000 for Hawaii.

New Zealand's is probably the most socialistic form of government on earth to-day; that of Hawaii, a triumph of centralization of capital and employment of Oriental labor. Yet the white man's wages are higher in Hawaii than in New Zealand, and the whites themselves are spending voluntarily a million or more dollars a year to bring other whites to Hawaii to supplant the Oriental. There is a chance to study social problems in the new dominion in comparison with those that trouble our own new territory. Each domain is seeking to work out its salvation in its own particular way — and they are widely divergent.

Criticize the manner in which the New Zealanders deal with their social problems as I may, it is certain that in journeying back and forth from one end of

the land to the other, and across country, I never once came face to face with any case of actual poverty, and encountered few evidences of wealth. If, as it seems on the surface, the New Zealanders have solved the problem of moderate means for all; great wealth and great poverty for none, we can but congratulate them. New Zealand is now making laws limiting the value of a man's holding of real estate to a maximum of £50,000 and cutting up large estates to divide among the landless and homeless, even advancing to the moneyless money to go upon their lands. But in spite of all these fraternal laws and pampering of the small landholder and day laborer, the fact remains that at present the new dominion depends for a continuance of her prosperity on the price of butter and wool in the London market. True, there is a scheme afoot by which the government hopes to drain a swamp that will grow native flax to the value of one hundred million dollars, but the swamp is yet to be drained, the flax grown and a market found for it. But the price of land goes higher and higher, so that to-day the sheep runs make the heart of the owner glad if they return him five per cent on the value of his land and investment.

The new dominion has as its task to find solutions to the problems "Dick" Seddon propounded during his rule. Government ownership and control of all industries seems to be the panacea offered by the many. Other remedies are proposed by various silver-tongued orators, and the people vote. What wonder then that with the real serious struggle of life ever before them, for New Zealand is a country founded by the workingman for the workingman, the masses care little whether or no they be called colonists or dominionists, subjects or citizens.



**AT LAST THE GATES OF CASTLE GARDEN SWING
OUTWARD**

Uncle Sam — Well, I have elastic immigration if I haven't
elastic currency, by gosh!
Morris, in the *Spokane Spokesman-Review*

CONSIDERING A COMPLAINT

The Travelling Public — These upper berths are too high!
Bartholomew, in the *Minneapolis Journal*

TO THE TALL TIMBERS!
Gregg, in the *Atlanta Georgian*

THE NEW DAWNING
Doyle, in the *Philadelphia Press*

CURRENT OPINION

ROOSEVELT AND PROSPERITY

A SYMPOSIUM BY BUSINESS MEN

During the latter part of December we sent out a number of letters to representative business houses the country over, asking them for a reply to the following questions:

What in your opinion, was the cause of the recent financial flurry?

Do you think it due to too free an application of the "Big Stick," to overexpansion in business, to reckless speculation, — or what?

In response to these letters we had a large number of replies, from which we choose some of the most representative. We have not attempted to select these because of the views expressed; and the all but complete unanimity of opinion is remarkable. Among all the replies there was no single letter that expressed the belief that the recent financial difficulties were due exclusively to President Roosevelt.

From GEORGE P. BENT (Chicago)

As to the cause of present conditions, I think there are several "causes," but the great one is lack of confidence induced by the noisy attacks by politicians, high and low, on capital and corporations. Until statesmen come, and politicians, papers, preachers and people go (with their paternalistic and socialistic talk) and we have rest and peace, less noise and more real thought, for a time prosperity will remain under a cloud. Government should keep out of the "owning" and "regulating" arena until it shows great improvement in its conduct of affairs it has had charge of for years.

From C. H. INGERSOLL (New York)

Undoubtedly the pebble which, starting from the mountain top has precipitated the mass, is what you refer to as the "Big Stick" and "reckless criticism," but as a "cause" this is so flimsy as to indicate clearly the ulterior intent of those who assign it as such, namely, to cover misdeeds of a substantial character.

The Republic has never yet seen a period of such tremendous import as the present, and never one in which the signs of returning health, or at least true diagnosis, were so plain, and for this the President must be largely credited.

From BUFFALO LITHIA SPRINGS WATER CO.

By W. W. Wagstaff

I am sure I am unable to tell the cause of our present troubles, but must think the general muckraking which is being carried on all over the country has had its share in it. It is natural for a man to grab his pocket when the cry of "pick-pocket" is heard on all sides.

From THE SANITOL CHEMICAL LABORATORY CO. (St. Louis)

By H. Gibson

In our opinion the recent financial flurry was due to the condition of the business development of this country, where the enlarged increase in manufacturing proved more than the actual currency of the country could support, when as actually happened, the financial institutions were forced to call in cash loaned in order to protect their own interests.

Will say absolutely "no" so far as the "Big Stick" is concerned.

From LOUIS M. PARK,

**President, Hiawatha Water Company
(Minneapolis)**

I believe the recent financial flurry was caused by the world's great expansion in business and also by several big calamities which have visited us during the past few years. The "Big Stick" has, in a way, assisted.

The United States at the present time

is in need of magazines that will present our great leaders before the people in the proper light. They perhaps have their faults, but they have done much to build up this country to what it is to-day, and the good side of their work should be brought before the public.

From F. F. INGRAM

Frederick F. Ingram & Co. (Detroit)

In our opinion capital will never get the "square deal" until the law-breakers, certain large corporations who are to a large extent also the law-makers, are brought to book, and their illegally acquired privileges and immunities abolished.

From XENOPHON CAVERNO.

President. The Kewanee System of Water Supply (Kewanee, Ill.)

As to the cause of the recent financial flurry, I think that it is due to the "Big Stick," to overexpansion of business, and to reckless speculation and several other things. Personally, I regard President Roosevelt as the greatest conservative force in America to-day. He has checked the trend toward Populism and Socialism among the farmers and laboring classes, and if he had not come in with the "Big Stick," the clash would have come, and would have been a good deal harder. While the demands for capital have been greater than the country could supply, owing to overexpansion in business, it is idle to claim that the main trouble with the railroads is not due to their own shortcomings.

The insurance investigation, the Harri-man methods in Alton and Union Pacific, the exposures before the public-service commission in New York, and the Heinze-Morse operations, form a chain leading closer and closer to the banking and financial interests of the whole country. If the banks were not dishonest they had at least tolerated dishonesty, and no one knew how far it went. Corporations must learn that business honesty and personal honesty are the same thing, and that stock-gambling and any other kind of gambling are no different.

President Roosevelt has done more than any other one man in modern times to arouse in the people a sense of morality and justice; and this must be reckoned with by both capital and labor in all fu-

ture operations. If it be necessary to go through a financial flurry or a panic, or hard times to establish this, I am willing to take my medicine now. The longer we put it off, the more bitter the dose will be.

From A. D. BROWN,

President, Hamilton, Brown Shoe Co. (St. Louis)

In my opinion the cause of the financial flurry has been that the people have been borrowing too much money, thereby causing an inflation of values that sooner or later had to collapse. The collapse has come, and those who have not borrowed are in as good or better condition than they ever were.

We do not believe that corporations and large businesses that are conducted upon honest and fair dealing plans are in any danger of the "Big Stick." We are not worried about the agitation, but are going ahead with more earnestness and working harder than ever to increase our business and keep as much out of debt as possible.

From H. C. YEISER,

President. The Globe-Wernicke Co. (Cincinnati)

I think the cause of the recent and still present financial flurry is due, partly, to overexpansion in business, but vastly more to not only reckless but riotous speculation. No criticism or abuse of capital or of corporations has come under my notice; but I have observed a great deal of justly deserved criticism and censure of the methods of capitalists and of some corporations. I do not think that either capital or corporations need any defense or any help, nor that the public is called upon to demand anything in their behalf. They are able to take care of themselves and are in no danger, unless they have been dishonest or indiscreet in the matter of taking risks. Such a thing as class hatred against capital or corporations is absurd, as every one understands that capital is like blood to the system, and that corporations are as necessary as hands and feet.

I see no danger of agitation for reform (of dishonest methods) degenerating into an attack upon capital, or playing into the hands of the Socialists. I am not a Socialist, but I am in favor of agitation for reform where reform is needed, and it certainly is needed in many directions.

I do not agree that "agitation must cease," but believe that agitation should continue until "Harrimanism and Ryanism" is eliminated, and do not consider that agitation of the kind I approve is "reckless."

I have never been able to see anything wrong in the advocacy or practice of truth and honesty in business or elsewhere.

From **GEORGE S. PARKER.**
President, Parker Pen Co. (Janesville, Wis.)

In the opinion of the writer the recent financial flurry is not at all traceable to the too free application of the "Big Stick." This may have hastened it, but was not by any means the cause of it. The cause of it, in the opinion of the writer, was the New York Stock Exchange, and if this institution could be wiped out of existence, we believe the business conditions all over the country would run along sane and normal. It is also the writer's opinion that the business men and the people at large are beginning to realize the foregoing things are facts, and that as a rule the gamblers and those who have purchased these water stocks are the real losers and not the solid business public.

We are glad to know that the country is fortunate enough to have a man like Roosevelt, who is brave enough and strong enough, with the courage to carry out his convictions and to strike at a wrong, no matter how great and rich or how prominent the people are that are committing this wrong. Covering up an old sore does not heal it. The surgeon's knife in most cases—as in the present one—was the only real remedy that Roosevelt has applied. While it may hurt to cut deep, yet the people will come out of this a saner, better and sounder people than ever before—thanks to our courageous President.

From **GEORGE F. MORGAN.**
Enoch Morgan's Sons Co. (New York)

I think the recent financial flurry was caused by too extended credit, which led to overexpansion in business, and to reckless speculation. Or, in other words, there was too much floating or short-time indebtedness.

I think the "Big Stick" had very little to do with it. If the finances of the coun-

try had been on a healthy basis the "Big Stick" would have had no effect.

From **W. R. FOX.**
President, Fox Typewriter Co. (Detroit)

We think there are three causes of the present financial difficulty:

The first is the unprincipled stock trading and manipulation.

Second, the exposure of this, and

Third, the unreasonable pressure which has been placed upon the railroads and large corporations, causing a decline in the securities which has affected not only the wealthy, but people of moderate means who had invested in them.

We think the first cause ought to be the subject of national legislation. If they could eliminate entirely the buying and selling of property which people do not own, it would go a long way toward preventing a recurrence of the present difficulty.

While we believe that the national government should exercise supervision and compel large corporations to obey just laws, we do not believe that it is necessary to make such a display of government power as has been made during the past year.

From **N. W. HALSEY (New York)**

Undoubtedly there has come to be a great readiness on the part of the public to listen to any criticism on corporate management. A very large amount of this criticism has been either reckless or malicious, much of it has been made by wholly incompetent men. I have met representatives of periodicals in which these articles were appearing, and I found, very often, that they were only interested in gossip or data that would appeal to the sensation-loving public, and that they were more ready to deal with half truths, provided those half truths were against the corporations, than to present the case fairly.

I have also been impressed with the fact that many of these men thought that they were giving the corporations a "square deal," and I have believed that the difficulty might lie in the failure of the proprietors of the periodicals or newspapers to employ competent writers or newsgatherers.

I have the pleasure of an intimate acquaintance with financial writers on some

of the best newspapers in New York and who represent some of the best periodicals, who come here for information, and without question their aim is to be fair to the corporation and fair to the public. You can easily pick out which newspapers and periodicals I refer to if you read the papers. The difficulty appears to be that we have a very large element in our population that enjoys reading sensational criticisms on corporations and on men who are much in the public eye. The newspapers and periodicals who wish to increase their circulation and become candidates for large advertising cater to this class of readers.

In your own home, for instance, you may have all of these newspapers and periodicals. They are at the disposal of anybody who makes his home under your roof, whether a member of your family, guest or servant. Your conservative, well-balanced, square-dealing newspaper or periodical appeals very little to the kitchen

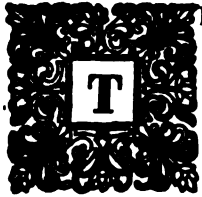
or the stable. Then there is an intermediate class of readers—far more intelligent with better opportunities, but with a disappointment of one sort or another to nurse, who lends a willing ear to such phrases as the ones we see in use so much now, namely, "Men of Predatory Wealth," "Grinding Corporations," "Bad Corporations," etc., and certain magazines are employing writers whose articles appeal to this class. Just as soon, however, as any of this particular class become possessed of a certain amount of property which is likely to be affected, their point of view changes, and you will find this true in your own home or in your own office just as we have found that the securities of a public utility corporation issued by a company, where the people very largely own their own homes, was on a much sounder basis than a corporation operating in a territory inhabited to a considerable extent by non-owners or "tenants."

BONDS AS INVESTMENTS

BY

N. W. HARRIS

PRESIDENT OF THE HARRIS TRUST AND SAVINGS BANK



THE ideal investment combines ample security of principal, a good rate of interest, easy convertibility into cash, and the possibility of enhancement in value.

There are numerous forms of investment possessing one or more of these essentials in greater or lesser degree; but in well-selected bonds of municipalities, railroads and other large public service corporations, the above requirements are more perfectly combined than in any other form of investment. Opportunities are not infrequently offered to those of good business judgment to invest in high-grade bonds of this character, which, for the soundest of reasons, are expected to show a marked increase in value, and in the opinion of the most competent experts such an opportunity is presented at the present time.

Government Bonds: In the above enumeration of the classes of bonds which form an ideal investment, it will be noticed that government bonds are not included, for the reason that nearly all of the bonds of the United States Government are bought by the banks to secure the national bank currency of the country. The highest net interest return on any issue of United States Government Bonds, according to present market prices, is only two and a half per cent per annum, which leaves them out of consideration for the general investment market. From the standpoint of safety, the government bonds of countries like England, France, Germany and the United States outrank all other classes of investment, and, as a consequence, the interest return is lower than on any other class of bonds. The government bonds of the United States yield a lower interest return than the bonds of any other country.

Municipal Bonds: When any city, town,

county, school district or other municipal subdivision has occasion to construct waterworks, sewers, courthouses, city halls, schoolhouses, or to make other expenditures for the public good involving an outlay beyond its regular receipts, the law gives it power within certain limits to borrow money by issuing its "promises to pay." These promises the municipality pledges itself to meet at some definite future time, the written instrument being known as a municipal bond. It is vital to the value of the municipal bond that it be legally issued, for if the officials of a municipality issue bonds without authority of law they can not bind the taxpayer, and if the bonds are decreed to be illegally issued, thus becoming null and void, the loss is total. Therefore, the legality of municipal bonds should be approved by attorneys who are known to be expert in their special province. Municipal bonds which are issued to aid railroads and manufacturers, etc., although they may be legally issued, should be avoided, for the reason that public sentiment sometimes arises against railroads and other corporations to such a degree that attorneys and others who would benefit by litigation use their influence to bring about a default on the part of a municipality and force its bondholders either to accept a compromise or go through a long period of litigation. Municipal bonds purchased for investment should be those issued for strictly municipal purposes.

The total indebtedness of a municipality in many states is restricted to five per cent of the assessed valuation for taxes, and the total indebtedness of a municipality, in order that its bonds may be considered in a conservative class, should not exceed five per cent of the actual value of the property assessed for taxation, excluding such indebtedness as is incurred for waterworks or other municipal properties which produce sufficient net revenue to provide for the indebtedness so created.

Legally issued and properly restricted, bonds of established municipalities rank among the highest grade of conservative investments, as the faith and credit of the municipalities are pledged for their payment. Another great advantage of municipal bonds is that they are practically a first lien on *all the property* in the municipality, for the reason that the

taxes, out of which the principal and interest are met, must in any event be paid. The excellent record of municipal bonds as investments, however, should not serve as an excuse for an investor's failure to exercise the usual care and judgment in making purchases. In selecting this class of bonds for an investment one should take into consideration the population, assessed and real valuation of the property, amount and nature of the various items of public debt, the value of the property owned by the issuing municipality, and the character and extent of its industries. The circulars of the leading bond houses usually give with exactness all of the above information.

Railroad Bonds: First mortgage or prior lien bonds, issued by railroads in good physical condition, earning, net, double the total interest charges on its bonds and serving a growing territory, comprise one of the most desirable forms of investment. It is impossible within the brief limits of this article to discuss all of the factors which go to determine the relative value of railroad bonds. The leading railroads issue comprehensive annual reports giving full information regarding their earning capacity and financial and physical condition, and the investor who exercises ordinary business judgment and purchases only from bankers of established standing can always find a safe and profitable medium in railroad bonds for the investment of his funds. The principal points on which an investor should secure information are: the priority of the lien, the character of the property on which the bonds are secured by a mortgage, the physical condition of the property, the character of the territory served and the margin of safety as shown by the excess earnings over the fixed charges of the company. The bonds of corporations having a large floating debt should be avoided.

In general, bonds which are a legal investment for the savings banks of Massachusetts, Connecticut and New York are among the safest investments, as the restrictions covering the investments of such institutions in the states named are the result of many years of experience and of careful legislation for the protection of the large number of small depositors in the industrial centers.

Public Service Bonds: Mortgage bonds of well-managed and conservatively capitalized street railway systems, controlling the transportation business of a populous territory or large city, together with those of gas, water, electric lighting and power companies, are entitled to the consideration of the most conservative investors, when the physical and financial condition, capitalization, franchise rights and all legal phases of the security have first passed the scrutiny of a conservative banking house and its corps of experts. The earning capacity of such properties has been settled beyond experiment, and their profitable operation is an established business fact.

In the original purchase of bonds upon railroads and other public service properties, it is desirable that preference be given to the purchase of bonds running for a long period of time, for the reason that with the general growth of the country and the development of the property the margin of the security is increased, as is also its general market value.

In the operation of properties which are a public necessity, the nature of their business is such as to create a practical monopoly within their field, thus making their earnings largely independent of fluctuations in general industrial conditions. In regard to public service corporations, the question of franchise is very important, and the purchaser should only purchase the bonds of those companies whose franchises extend well beyond the maturity of the bonds.

When the net earnings, after providing for taxes, operating expenses and proper maintenance, are sufficient to equal at least double the interest upon the bonds outstanding upon the property, such a security can generally be considered as a choice and safe investment. It is necessary for such properties to have a large surplus of earnings in order to take care of the depreciation which is continually going on, and also to provide for the various improvements and betterments. It has been shown by experience that railway companies, gas companies, electric companies, etc., are frequently obliged practically to throw away a large amount of their equipment and machinery and to put in other and more
larger and stronger appliances, to brighten

curves, etc., this being brought about by the more modern and improved methods for the operation of the property. It must be expected that there will, in the future, be further material improvements in the construction and operation of such properties, and provision should be made accordingly. Then again, there are sure to come times of general business depression. Hence, investors should buy only bonds of such corporations as have large surplus earnings. Some corporations may issue desirable bonds for new extensions, the earning capacity of which may not be fully developed, and this feature should be considered.

Experience shows that as the bondholder only receives interest on his bonds and has no share in the profits of a corporation, he should be careful in making his selections and purchase only bonds the principal and interest of which are abundantly secured. When bonds are first issued they should be bought by the investor only of banking houses or financial institutions of high reputation and standing, having sufficient facilities for competently judging the security, and with an established reputation for protecting the interests of their clients.

Railroads, and other corporations as well, are liable to have a change in management, and no one can accurately prophesy the future management of any property. It should be seen, therefore, that stockholders put into every enterprise sufficient capital fully to protect the bondholders; and then if a large floating indebtedness is created through mismanagement, and a corporation is obliged to go into the hands of a receiver, the bondholders, in such cases, should insist upon the payment of their bonds, principal and interest in full, or should take over the property by foreclosure proceedings and change the management thereof. In such a contingency the ability and management of the bankers is especially important, as the joint action of virtually the entire body of bondholders through able and financially competent banking houses is essential for protecting the interests of the bondholders. When these principles in making investments are adhered to for a long period, experience has demonstrated that the ultimate actual loss, if any, to bondholders is merely nominal.

BOOKS AND READING

Science, Philosophy and Religion

Evolution and Animal Life. By David Starr Jordan and Vernon L. Kellogg. Pp. xi, 489, \$2.50 net.

Darwinism To-day. By Vernon L. Kellogg. Pp. xii, 403. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

These two volumes admirably complement each other, and are a tribute to the scientific achievements of members of the Leland Stanford, Jr., University. The former book is more general and more popular. In fact, with its great number of pictures, it may be almost called a demonstration of the evolutionary hypothesis as it relates to animals. There is no better volume for the general introduction and explanation of the evolutionary theory.

In his volume on Darwinism Professor Kellogg gathers together a complete summary of the present criticism of the Darwinian method and of the rival theories of evolution. The book is a thesaurus of information and is to be recommended to all those who are interested in the vital matter it discusses. It is particularly recommended to those persons who believe that evolution has been abandoned or has in some way collapsed.

A new and revised edition has been prepared of W. S. Harwood's "*New Creations in Plant Life*" (Macmillan, \$1.75 net), in which the contributions of Luther Burbank to the world's welfare are described and extolled. The book is interesting, has an abundance of photographs, and serves better than any volume now before the public to show the possibilities back of Burbank's investigations and discoveries.

The late court chaplain of Germany, Rudolph Schmidt, some time since published a volume, "*The Scientific Creed of the Theologian*," which has been translated by J. W. Stoughton (New York, Armstrong, \$1.50). It is a rather successful attempt at harmonizing religion and science. His position is both scientific and progressive, but always tolerant. On the whole it is a good corrective of that sort of theology which thinks that only is scientific which is negative. The book is also valuable as a summary of the various views as to evolution.

For a number of years the name of Friedrich Nietzsche has been synonymous with all that which is negative in religion and morality. Just how far this reputation can be justified can be seen more easily in the recently translated "*Beyond Good and Evil*" (Macmillan, \$2.50) than in his better known books. Nietzsche does not believe in the conventional morality nor is he an admirer of the ethics of Christianity. He compels one to face fundamental questions and refuses to gloss over the primary problems in life which the average moralist hardly sees are prob-

lems. His philosophy, like Haeckel's, is far more pervasive than the average student of religion imagines and the church must reckon with it in the future. If love and sacrifice ever cease to be the moral good they have been held to be, but come to be regarded as evidence of weakness rather than moral strength, it will be largely due to the influence of this extraordinary German.

Arthur Kenyon Rogers is one of the few American philosophers who keep themselves apart from the rush of life for the purpose of thinking and writing. He was hardly more than a boy when he wrote an original work of real significance on the synoptic problem and the teaching of Jesus. Since that time he has published a number of exceedingly valuable volumes in the field of philosophy and now carries his thought one step farther and produces genuinely constructive work in his "*Religious Conception of the World*" (Macmillan). In this volume he discusses the fundamental questions of religion, including immortality. It is the sort of book to be recommended to every genuinely thoughtful person, and it is written in such simple English that no man need be afraid of it because it is philosophy.

Rev. R. J. Campbell follows up his volume "*The New Theology*" with "*New Theology Sermons*" (Macmillan, \$1.50 net). Whatever one may think about Mr. Campbell's philosophy, these sermons are good reading for those who want to read religious books.

In "*The Infinite Affection*" (Pilgrim Press, \$1 net), Dr. Charles S. MacFarland gives a brief, simple and entirely temperate statement of some of the principal matters of modern religious thought from the newer point of view. Avoiding criticism of the old, and bizarre effects in statements of the new, he helps to clearer vision of some of the great certitudes.

It is a return to an older, and perhaps better, time to see a volume of sermons. Jenkin Lloyd Jones, the head of Lincoln Center in Chicago, has had twenty-two confirmation classes of young men and women go out under his ministry, and the sermons preached for each are collected into a volume appropriately termed "*Love and Loyalty*" (University of Chicago Press, \$1.50 net), with an introductory essay on "*Life's Commencements*." Mr. Jones draws with impartiality on the Scriptures, the scientists, the poets and the historians, and the result is a fine and sincere belief in the eventual victory of righteousness.

"*Child Religion in Story and Song*," by Georgia Louise Chamberlin and Mary Root Kern (\$1), and "*Sunday Story Reminders*," by the same writers (40 cents), are issued by the University of Chicago Press for use in Sunday schools, by children between the ages of six and nine years, and their teachers and parents. They are the result of the experiences of those who have prepared them, and represent the ripest ideas about the religious training of children. An

intelligent teacher or parent is needed to handle these helps wisely. One feels only praise for the fine selection of true music for the little people who are only too often given religious rag-time.

History, Travel and Economics

Owen Wister has turned to the field of history, and in "*The Seven Ages of Washington*" (Macmillan, \$2 net) has given a very interesting interpretation of the life of the "Father of his Country." Mr. Wister writes history with the same eye for effect that he uses when he writes fiction. As might be suspected, the result is a strong piece of writing.

Monsieur Claude was a chief of police under the Second Empire of France. He published long ago ten volumes of memoirs. Catherine Preston Wormeley has undertaken to condense the first five and publish a translation under the title "*Memoirs of Monsieur Claude*" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., \$4 net). It is a fascinating human document, with its share of the excitement which we have learned to associate with French detectives. It also throws light upon Napoleon III. and upon some of the prominent actors in the series of revolutions which culminated in the Second Empire. As there is no reason to believe that the volume is fiction, it is one to be commended to the student of history as well as to the general reader, particularly the latter.

Encouraged by the success of his book "With Flashlight and Rifle," C. G. Schillings has brought together a new series of his studies and "nature documents" in the volume "*In Wildest Africa*" (Harper's, \$5 net. 715 pages). As with the previous volume the book is unique in its illustrations. Over three hundred photographs show every form of African wild life in natural and little known surroundings. Some of the pictures taken with telephoto lens are blurred and hazy, but they at least can be relied upon for a truthfulness that excludes retouching. Herr Schillings is one of the sportsmen who insist upon the protection of big game. His rifle is often used only for self-defense after dropping his camera. The pictures show in a striking way the almost primeval abundance of animal life that exists in the heart of Africa. The chapters on elephant, rhinoceros and lion hunting afford an intense excitement that is particularly enjoyable—in an easy chair.

Probably as interesting a collection of early American buildings as could be brought together is described in the volume "*Historic Churches of America*" (Duffield, \$2 net) by Nellie Urner Wallington. Although the seventy churches have been chosen for historical interest rather than architectural beauty, the majority of them are fine examples of the contemporary styles. Mrs. Wallington's research has unearthed many interesting incidents that show the close relation of early ecclesiastical and national history. The volume is illustrated with thirty-two full-page pictures and contains an introduction by Dr. Edward Everett Hale.

The ordinary visitor to Chicago sees only a rushing, smoky city bordering on a noble lake. For the person who—here to find them,

however, there are environs as well as sections within the city that are full of beauty. Miss Luella Chapin in her beautifully illustrated volume "*Round About Chicago*" (Unity Publishing Company, \$1.50), has described many of these places sympathetically, and so vividly as to make anybody want to visit them. It really is a guide-book for the citizens of the great city, and is filled with the most exquisite photographs. It is the sort of book every Chicagoan should, in justice to himself and his city, send out as an antidote to the reports which emanate from Chicago through the press.

Captain A. T. Mahan sets forth some well-ascertained facts in the essays he contributes to "*Some Neglected Aspects of War*" (Little, Brown & Co., \$1.50 net), showing that both preparation for war and war itself are within the bounds of present possibilities at all times. It is a little curious, however, to find him appealing to the sayings of Jesus for justification, and one would have a little stronger feeling of his impartiality if he had anywhere a little word of praise for peace. President H. S. Pritchett contributes an essay on "The Power that Makes for Peace," in which he holds China up as an example of what can happen to an unwarlike nation. Yet China has contrived to survive every warlike nation in history, and there is such a thing, presumably, as survival of the fittest. Julian Corbett ends the symposium with a well-considered essay on "The Capture of Private Property at Sea," which shows England's attitude is based on national self-interest.

The fifth volume of the series, *American Fights and Fighters*, edited by Cyrus Townsend Brady, deals with "*Northwestern Fights and Fighters*" (The McClure Co., \$1.50). Mr. Brady opens the book with the epic of the Nez Perce War and then different participants follow with accounts of the series of engagements or with special battles; the Modoc war is treated in the same way. A highly important piece of work has been done in bringing together these varied and vivid accounts, while if all are as accurate as are several in the Nez Perce campaign, as for example the battle of the Big Hole, good historical material is here.

Any one who wishes to get an interesting view of the administration of the railroads should read Logan G. McPherson's lectures on "*The Working of the Railroads*" (Holt). In a series of well-constructed chapters he describes not only the construction and operation of the roads, but also their organization and the caring for finances and traffic. The book closes with a general description of the relations of the railroads to the public and the state.

"*Ship Subsidies*" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., \$1 net) is contributed by Walter T. Dunmore to a prize contest. It weighs the comparative merits of subsidies and free ships, decides that there is no reason why free ships should not be allowed in the foreign trade of the country, and free trade in the materials of which ships are to be built in this country.

Art and Literature

A compilation that deserves more than casual mention is "*The Gentlest Art*" (Macmillan, \$1.25 net) by E. V. Lucas. It is a little book of

several hundred of the most entertaining letters in the English language. Any one who knows the various anthologies and collected writings of which Mr. Lucas has been the editor can depend upon his judgment for a selection of the best. A clever classification of the letters divides them into such groups as "The Familiar Manner," "The Grand Style," "The Newsbearers," etc.

"*Painters and Sculptors*" (Duffield, \$2.50 net) by Kenyon Cox, is a companion volume to his "Old Masters and New" of two years ago. This second series of essays contains a couple of discussions on art topics and individual studies of the Pollaiuoli, Holbein, Rembrandt, Rodin and Leighton. Mr. Cox disarms criticism. He manifestly does not come under the chief accusation of the artist as a critic: he is not biased by a particular school or method. Moreover he does not put undue emphasis upon technic, but gives one an insight into its true value.

An original idea is at the back of Lady Tennant's "*The Children and the Pictures*" (Macmillan, \$1.50). Many portraits painted by the great English artists of two and three generations ago are printed in the book in color, and stories are told of each picture, generally by the subject of the portrait. Narrated as these are to a family of nice children, they succeed in imparting a great deal of really interesting information in a simple and straightforward way.

It is a charming and practical account of flower gardening that Mrs. Rose G. Kingsley has given in "*Eversley Gardens*" (Macmillan, \$1.75). She follows the development of horticulture on an English estate from its beginnings, with all sorts of advice regarding the actual purchases to be made and steps to be taken in order to have land blossoming as hers does, as evidenced in the numerous photographs utilized throughout the pleasant volume. There is a literary feeling throughout the work, as if gardening were not satisfied with being its own reward.

It is no wonder that "*Days Off*," by Henry Van Dyke (Harper's, \$1.50), should have been reprinted twice since its publication in October. It is a well-balanced volume of stories of catching huge salmon, delightful essays on the woods, a diverting essay on gulls, side by side with stories of love-making, and discussions of bait and fly fishing. It is just the sort of book a man wants to read when he feels tired and thinks of the woods.

Doubleday, Page & Co. have published a beautiful edition of the collected poems of Rudyard Kipling (\$1.80 net). The volume is not parallel with any set of Kipling and shows signs of careful editing. To some extent the classification of the original volumes has been kept, but in some ways also there have been regroupings of the poems. From any point of view, it is a most admirable volume, and enables the reader now to enjoy Kipling's verse without searching up and down through his works. Unfortunately, however, some of the little verses which stand at the head of his sketches have not been incorporated. These little snatches of verse ought to be indexed.

Albert Shaw is guilty of a misnomer in the title of "*The Outlook for the Average Man*" (Macmillan, \$1.25 net), for the book is made up of essays delivered at college commencements, and

audiences there are notoriously above the average, while the paper deals with university graduates, also greatly above the average in attainments. Mr. Shaw is emphatically an optimist, but he should at least admit the fact that, it being granted that the outlook has not bettered itself in recent years, it can hardly be averred that it is standing still. There is a well-deserved tribute to Thomas Jefferson at the close of the book, the more notable because there is so strong a disposition recently to act as if Jefferson were something of which to be ashamed.

William L. Hutchinson has gathered together a number of old Greek fairy tales under the title "*The Golden Torch*," a name borrowed from Pindar (Longmans, Green & Co.). The volume includes the stories of Peleus and Amphiaraus, as well as many another of the choice survivals of the older Greek mythology. Each story is delightfully told, and the book makes a capital volume to put into the hands of the younger members of the family, especially if they are not to study Greek in the high school.

Fiction

Elizabeth Robbins belongs to the class of women novelists who believe in calling a spade a spade, if not a manure fork. In "*The Convert*" (Macmillan, \$1.50) she writes of woman suffrage in England with the enthusiasm of a devotee. And it is a book to be taken seriously, for it embodies in its long conversations arguments for the equality of women in the government, which will be something of a revelation to those who think that all woman suffrage means is the right of women to have a hand in indiscriminate voting. The book lacks some of the dramatic elements which have gone into some of Miss Robbins' other books, but it is not altogether wanting in action and possesses an earnestness that more than justifies its existence.

Ralph Barbour knows how to tell a story for a boy, and his volume "*Four Afloat*" (Appleton, \$1.50) is full of healthy adventure and manly sport. The same can be said of his other volume, "*The Spirit of the School*" (Appleton, \$1.50). The first deals with the summer trip of a group of admirable youngsters on a gasoline launch, and the second deals with athletics in a preparatory school. Each, but particularly the second, carries a healthy lesson in the moralities of boy life.

Margaret Sherwood's little volume, "*Princess Pourquoi*" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., \$1.50), is a delightful collection of stories, half satirical, and altogether delightful. It would be difficult to find a choicer bit of irony than that of the princess and the evil fairy, or of the clever necromancer who fascinated women by covering up bromidian truths in high-spun English. It is a book to be read aloud, and that in itself is a guarantee of its interest.

Thomas Nelson Page in "*Under the Crust*" (Scribner's, \$1.50) has gathered together a number of stories which are brimful of that delicate sentiment which we have learned to associate with the author. Each of its constituent stories and its little play of "Hostage" is clean cut as a cameo, and each one of them leaves the reader with a little larger confidence in his kind.

Susan Clegg has been indulging in another series of gossips with Mrs. Lathrop, and her humorous conversational meanderings are recorded in "*Susan Clegg and a Man in the House*," by Anne Warner (Little, Brown & Co., \$1.50 net). Her philosophy is so genially biting and her style so spicy that its reading is too rich for a continued diet; it is essentially a book of humor to be read in small installments or aloud on idle evenings.

Meredith Nicholson has told another story, as replete with dramatic situations as "*The House of a Thousand Candles*," in "*Rosalind at the Red Gate*" (Bobbs-Merrill Co., \$1.20). Although the time of the plot is not, as the title might suggest, in the dark ages, nor the scene among castles, the heroine is precisely the piquant damsel, or damsels, which the title promises. The fascinating story leaves you wondering whether the narrator or the Fool won the greater prize.

"*His Own People*" (Doubleday, Page & Co., \$1) is another cameo cut by Booth Tarkington. Both the subject and the effect are less pleasing than in Monsieur Beaucaire, but you can feel Tarkington's nervous fingers all through this sketch of the fleecing of a tender American Lamb by the fascinating shearers of continental Europe. The book is well illustrated and decorated.

The Jamestown Exposition with its historic suggestions seems to have produced little appropriate literature. "*John Smith, Gentleman Adventurer*" (J. B. Lippincott Company) is the somewhat tardy tribute to the John Smith of Pocahontas fame offered by Mr. C. H. Forbes-Lindsay. The author's experience in descriptive writing leads him to avoid the temptations of the glowing romance of the redoubtable captain's history, and he tells in simple, straightforward manner the far from simple adventures of the brave soldier, and so makes a striking narrative.

A highly realistic and sometimes painful book is Jack London's "*The Road*" (Macmillan, \$1.50). It is an account of Mr. London's adventures as a tramp. It is a book to make the average reader less confident of the inherent goodness of humanity and of the management of our penitentiaries.

"*Between the Dark and the Daylight*" (Harper's, \$1.50) is a collection of stories done in W. D. Howells' best style. They all deal more or less with problems that lie on the borderland between sanity and insanity, but they never become morbid. There is humor running through them all and a saving sense of the absurdity of things absurd.

Marion Crawford never did a better piece of writing than his story "*The Little City of Hope*" (Macmillan, \$1.25). It is not a big book, but it has the flavor of Dickens and Stevenson, to say nothing of the sanity of the author. It is one of the best Christmas stories ever written.

One by one the episodes of American history are falling into the hands of the romancers, so that our complete annals may soon be reconstructed from their none too authentic writings. Earle Ashley Walcott, for example, uses the events clustering around the advent of Dennis Kearney, the orator of the San Francisco sand lots, for "*The Apple of Discord*" (Bobbs-Mer-

rill, \$1.50), and extracts a great deal of melodrama and sensation from these and from some stage Chinamen, somewhat neglecting his love story in the process.

Arthur Train has put together a group of his characteristic intense stories in "*Mortmain*" (Appleton's, \$1.50). They have appeared in the popular magazines and are just the thing, with their ticklish situations and their brilliant deliverances, for reading by a winter's fireside.

Education

Porter Lander MacClintock, in her "*Literature in the Elementary School*" (University of Chicago press, \$1), has rendered a distinct service to teachers and parents. The problem of literature for children is confessedly difficult for those who wish their boys and girls to read anything better than Henty. Mrs. MacClintock has had wide experience, and in consequence her suggestions are wise and her ideals will sometimes make the average father and mother ashamed of their children's reading. The various essays are in themselves literature.

Students of children's literature will find in "*Children's Books and Reading*," by Montrose J. Moses (New York, Mitchell Kennerley, \$1.50), a thoughtful and interesting study, unusual in style, and to some degree, in subject matter. It includes a discussion of "The Problem," "The Rise of Children's Books," the past and present of children's reading, and the response made to the needs of to-day, concluding with a variety of book-lists. Parents and teachers will find many helpful suggestions, but the number of book-lists and the uncertain tone in parts of the book make it an indefinite guide to the inexperienced.

"*Industrial Education*" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., \$1 net) is the contribution made by Harlow Stafford Person to the Hart, Schaffner & Marx prize essay contest. It sums up in small space the work already performed in this country, based largely on the more extended system developed in Germany, and shows what benefits will assuredly flow from bringing the youth of the country up to an understanding of the world's industries.

A citizen of California, who prefers to remain unknown, offered prizes for the best essays on "*Moral Training in the Public Schools*." The prize-winning essays with three others now appear in book form under the above title (Ginn & Co.). The first essay, by Principal Charles E. Rugh, of Oakland, California, discusses the philosophy of moral acts and the training of the moral person in a manner so scientific, clear and convincing that one can not but wish that this essay might be in the hands of every person who has to do with the education of the young. The second essay, by the Rev. T. P. Stevenson, proposes moral instruction through the teaching of the moral background of the laws of each state. Other essays by Edwin D. Starbuck, Frank Cramer and George E. Myers describe tried methods and discuss possible improvements in moral education. Altogether this book is one of the most valuable, helpful discussions of this highly important subject, not only for educators but for parents and preachers.

THE CALENDAR OF THE MONTH

United States

Administration.—December 24.—Rear-Admiral Willard Herbert Brownson resigned as chief of the Bureau of Navigation.

—January 1.—President Roosevelt appointed John E. Pillsbury Chief of the Bureau of Navigation.

Brownsville Raid.—December 26.—A suit to test the right of President Roosevelt to discharge the negro soldiers of the twenty-fifth infantry for alleged connection with the Brownsville raid, was begun in the United States District Court of New York. The suit was brought under the Tucker Act passed in 1887.

Casualties.—December 16.—Seventy-five miners killed by an explosion in Shaft No. 1 of the Yolande Coal and Coke Company at Yolande, Ala.

—December 19.—About two hundred miners entombed by a gas explosion in the Darr mine of the Pittsburgh Coal Company at Jacob's Creek, Pennsylvania, with no hope of rescue.

Chinese.—January 6.—The Supreme Court of the United States held that Cin Yow, in the habeas corpus case vs. the United States, involving the deportation of Yow, was entitled to a hearing.

Deaths.—December 23.—Stephen Russel Mallory, United States Senator from Florida, aged fifty-nine.

—December 26.—Albert G. Beannisme, assistant to the publisher of the Chicago *Daily News* and treasurer of the World To-day Company, aged fifty-five.

—December 31.—Edward G. Andrews, one of the oldest bishops of the Methodist Episcopal Church, aged eighty-two.

—January 2.—Nicholas Senn, surgeon, aged sixty-three.

—January 12.—Rabbi Bernhard Felsenthal, Hebrew scholar and a leader of "reformed Judaism" in Chicago, aged eighty-six.

Education.—January 2.—John D. Rockefeller gave \$2,191,000 to the University of Chicago for endowment and other purposes.

Finance.—December 24.—Railroad and other corporations paid interest and dividends in advance to relieve the financial stringency. One railroad distributed \$4,000,000 in dividends due January 22.

—December 30.—Cash dividends of \$2,701,875 paid to stockholders by Fall River cotton mill corporations for 1907. Stock dividends amounted to \$1,900,000 in addition. Operatives still receiving the highest wages.

Immigration.—December 15.—The report of the Commissioner of Immigration showed that in the year ending June 30, 1907, 1,285,349 aliens entered the United States.

Labor.—December 17.—Justice Gould of the Court of Equity of the District of Columbia

declared unlawful the "Unfair" and "We Don't Patronize" lists published by the American Federation of Labor. The federation was enjoined from using them against the Buck Stove and Range Company of St. Louis.

—December 20.—President Roosevelt ordered federal troops to be removed from Goldfield, Nevada, on December 30, as he was convinced the state authorities could and should cope with the troubles there.

—December 21.—Railroad shops at Omaha, and several factories in New England closed down until January 1.

—December 26.—At a meeting held by the Arkwright Club of Boston, at which more than eighty per cent of the cotton mills of New England were represented, it was decided to curtail normal production twenty-five per cent until March 1, as New York commission houses feared congestion of goods and falling prices if mills continued to operate in full.

—December 30.—Governor Sparks of Nevada called an extra session of the legislature to convene January 14, 1908, to settle the labor troubles at Goldfield.

—December 31.—Pending action by the legislature federal troops retained at Goldfield. . . . The executive board of the Western Federation of Miners elected Ernest Mills to the position of secretary and treasurer, occupied by William D. Haywood. . . . Several paper mills in Massachusetts closed indefinitely, throwing some two thousand men out of employment.

—January 1.—Woolen mills in Massachusetts that had been shut down for three weeks, resumed on full time. Steel and glass companies in Pennsylvania also began work again.

—January 6.—Fully ten thousand employees returned to work in Cleveland as a result of resumption of commercial activity; and thirty to forty thousand in northern Ohio. In Rhode Island, Massachusetts and Pennsylvania, rubber, boot, silk, cutlery and steel companies resumed operations.

Land Frauds.—January 10.—The government's investigation of land frauds stopped in consequence of decision by Federal Judge Lewis, of Colorado.

Mining.—December 26.—Promoters and others connected with the Lost Spanish Bullion Mines Company sentenced by the United States District Court at Denver to thirty days in jail and to pay a fine of \$1,000 each, on the charge of using the mails to defraud.

Municipal.—January 8.—The last remnants of the Schmitz administration cleared out of the city government in San Francisco.

—January 9.—The District Court of Appeals set aside the judgment in the case of ex-Mayor Schmitz, declaring that the indictment was invalid, as it did not prove an unlawful injury.

Norway

United States Minister.—December 23.—M. Gude, formerly minister of Norway and Sweden to Denmark, appointed to succeed the late H. C. Hauge as minister to the United States.

Sweden

Cabinet.—December 31.—Major-General O. B. Malm appointed minister of war to succeed Colonel L. H. Tingsten who resigned as a result of dissension over the failure of Sweden to sign treaty assuring the integrity of Norway.

King's Funeral.—December 19.—King Oscar II. buried in Stockholm, two thousand persons being in the procession to the Riddarholm church, the burial place of the kings of Sweden. The roadway covered a foot deep with fir twigs.

Russian Empire

Arrests.—December 16.—The arrest and confinement in the fortress of St. Peter and St. Paul of Nicholas Tschaikovsky, the founder of the first revolutionary circle in St. Petersburg, followed by the arrest of others considered his allies; Catherine Breshkovsky among them.

—December 18.—Professor Aintchkoff, the celebrated litterateur, sentenced to eighteen months' imprisonment in a fortress for carrying on a propaganda against the government.

—December 27.—Premier Stolypin received petition signed by Americans pleading for the release of Nicholas Tschaikovsky and Madame Breshkovsky. Madame Savinkoff, arrested on December 16, charged with complicity with M. Tschaikovsky in his revolutionary propaganda, was released and ordered to leave Russia within three days.

Death.—December 19.—M. Filossoff, minister of commerce and ex-controller of the empire.

Douma.—December 25.—The trial of 169 members of the douma who signed the Viborg manifesto, began, on a charge of treasonable practices. Among the accused were Professor Muromtseff, president of the first douma; Prince Dolgorukoff, vice-president; Prince Obolensky, Prince Shakhovsky, Count P. Tolstoi, and several professors and lawyers identified with the Constitutional Democrats. [See Events.]

—December 31.—One hundred and sixty-seven signers of the Viborg manifesto convicted and sentenced to three months' imprisonment. Two acquitted on the ground that they signed under a misapprehension. The sentence carries with it the loss of all political rights.

—December 28.—The douma passed an appro-

priation of \$7,500,000 for the relief of twelve provinces suffering from famine.

Poland.—December 17.—Sixteen hundred Polish schools closed in consequence of an order suspending the Polish School Association. The funds of the association sent abroad to prevent confiscation.

Persia

Revolt.—December 14.—A mob fired on the Parliament buildings in Teheran, and the cabinet resigned.

—December 16.—Through the intervention of the British minister, Premier Nasir-el-Mulk, and the minister of the interior, Sanin-ed-Dowleh, arrested on the orders of the Shah, were liberated. The premier at once started for Europe, an exile. The Parliament demanded an explanation.

—December 17.—Ten thousand Constitutionalists, supporting the Parliament, seized the Parliament buildings and barricaded them. The reactionaries who aided the forces of the Shah control the gun square and open places in the vicinity of the palace. Murder and looting of known or suspected Constitutionalists frequent. The Parliament issued a manifesto announcing that the Shah had violated the constitution and his covenant with the people. The postoffice and all shops in Teheran closed.

—December 22.—The Shah yielded and signed the declaration and sent it to the Parliament as a sign of his fidelity to the constitution. He accepted conditions laid down by Parliament, including punishment of ringleaders in recent riots and the dissolution of the court clique.

Chinese Empire

Mutiny.—December 23.—News received of the murder two weeks ago, by a detachment of Chinese soldiers of their officers, near Aigun in Manchuria, and the subsequent pillage of villages and caravans. A force of five hundred cavalymen sent in pursuit fought the mutineers, who numbered nine hundred men.

—January 8.—Unrest in Chekiang increasing; 10,000 insurgents defeated government troops, killing their commander. They then burned the barracks, postoffice, railway station, etc.

Morocco

Anarchy.—December 22.—Tribesmen set fire to stores of tobacco and opium in Fez and chased the members of the foreign board from the town.

Sultan.—January 12.—Mulai Hafid proclaimed Sultan in Fez by the Ulemas or wise men, at the demand of the populace who believed Sultan Abdel-Aziz had sold Morocco to France.

ELECTRICITY IN MINNEAPOLIS

OOD service on the part of a public-service corporation gets scant praise. Indifferent or bad service provokes a storm of angry protests. The public are impatient; they demand the best and when they understand the situation are usually willing to pay for it. Referring particularly to the electric lighting company, the idea is rapidly gaining ground that the interests of the company and the citizens are mutual. Increased business and profits make for lower rates. On the other hand, decreased earnings and a spirit of hostility to the company result in less business and higher rates. In enumerating the advantages of Minneapolis one seldom hears that the city possesses one of the finest electric light and power systems in America. Yet it would be much to the advantage of the citizens and the company to proclaim this fact as an important point in municipal advertising.

One has but to think of the conditions prevailing in Minneapolis eight years ago, when three different companies were supplying the city with service at an exorbitant yet unprofitable price, and compare them with the present magnificent combined steam and water power system with its storage batteries and underground distribution, to get an idea of what Stone & Webster have accomplished for Minneapolis during the brief period of their management.

At that time the service was intolerable. Break-downs were frequent. The city was paying \$118 per year for each arc light and the price of electricity was twenty cents per kilowatt hour. With a population of 200,000, the total gross earnings were only \$263,000. To-day, with a population of 300,000, the gross earnings are over \$920,000, or in other words with an increase in population of less than fifty per cent the earnings have

increased over two hundred per cent, and that too, in spite of the fact that the price has been gradually declining until it now shows a reduction of nearly fifty per cent. To-day the company proposes to furnish the most modern type of street arc lamp for \$67.50 per year and reduce the price of light to the citizens to ten cents per kilowatt hour.

As an evidence of the confidence that Stone & Webster have in the future of the City of Minneapolis they have just completed a new 24,000 horse-power plant at Taylors Falls which is one of the finest examples of hydro-electric construction in America. While this is primarily to take care of the rapidly growing demand for power, it is expected that this great increase in capacity will result in a corresponding increase in the use of electricity for light and industrial purposes and consequently make it possible to sell it at a price even lower than the ten-cent rate now proposed.

This point was clearly brought out by the manager of The Minneapolis General Electric Company in his testimony before the special franchise committee of the City Council, in which he stated that with the increased capacity now available the volume of business done would be the vital feature in securing a still further reduction in the cost of current.

The terms of the franchise which The Minneapolis General Electric Company are now seeking emphasizes most emphatically the mutuality of interest on the part of the company and the citizens. It virtually takes the city into partnership in that it provides for private ownership under municipal control, and the interests of both are fully protected. It represents the best thinking on the part of the leading authorities in this country, and when accepted will give Minneapolis the distinction of being one of the first cities to solve the problem of its public-service corporations.

MINNESOTA

MINNESOTA is a state little known to those living without border lines. While a new state, having admitted to the Union less than fifty years ago, she has made most phenomenal progress in every branch of industry. Minnesota now stands prominently at the head of her sister states in the production of wheat products — her flour being sold in every part of the civilized world.

The greatest deposits of iron ore in the world are found within her borders, and although it is only twenty years since the first iron ore was shipped from the state, she is now supplying sixty-five per cent of the iron of the United States, while vast additional deposits are being discovered every year.

In agriculture, Minnesota is outstripping her neighbors, and already stands fourth in the agricultural products, as compared with the forty-six states of the Union. There is a growth from \$6,748,707 in 1860, to \$113,092,602 in 1900.

In the production of live stock she has done especially well. Her healthy climate, fertile soil and pure waters make Minnesota particularly adapted to stock-raising.

The dairy products of the state have grown, in recent years, to command world-wide attention. Minnesota butter is known for its superior quality in all the butter markets, and stands at the head of all competitors in the tests of America, holding four of the prize banners out of six in the competitive tests in the United States.

In manufacturing, she has done equally well, her products in 1860 amounting to \$4,295,208, and in 1905, \$307,858,073.

The mining and lumbering, together with the numerous manufacturing industries, have developed three large, commercial centers, viz.: St. Paul, Minneapolis and Duluth, in addition to many smaller cities, which makes a domestic market unequaled by any other state.

This, combined with Minnesota's im-

mense railroads and Great Lake transportation facilities, gives the state a peculiar advantage over any of her sister states for farming, manufacturing, commerce or labor.

Minnesota boasts of the finest school system in America. The public school forms a basis for a complete course of education through the innumerable high schools, culminating in the University of Minnesota, which is recognized as one of the best institutions of learning in the United States. The schools of the state are augmented by the permanent school fund, secured from the sale of state lands, which it is estimated will soon amount to \$100,000,000. This enormous fund has been safeguarded by our lawmakers so that only the interest can be used, the principal being kept intact.

The above may seem extravagant when the reader is informed that not over forty per cent of the farm land is yet under cultivation, and cause him to ask why is Minnesota not more fully developed. The only answer the writer can give, is that the opportunities offered in every branch of industry are unknown to the people desirous of securing new homes.

There are 2,154,255 acres of Federal lands open to homestead. The state owns 2,500,000 acres of school lands, a part of which will be offered for sale at public auction during the month of July, 1908, in the following counties: Itasca, St. Louis, Carlton, Aitkin, Clearwater, Beltrami, Cass, Hubbard, Wadena, Kittson, Marshall, Roseau, Becker, Morrison, Mille Lacs, Koochiching and Pine.

State lands can be purchased by a cash payment of fifteen per cent, with forty years' time on the balance at four per cent interest. Full information, regarding state lands, can be had by writing S. G. Iverson, State Auditor, St. Paul.

The last legislature created a Board of Immigration, and now complete authentic information, relative to the State of Minnesota and her opportunities, will be furnished by addressing GEORGE WELSH, Commissioner of Immigration, St. Paul, Minnesota.

MURRAY—A BUILDER OF MEN

the Minneapolis institutions founded in the city none have become more prominent or have gained as wide reputation in their respective lines of business as the Murray Cure for the

liquor habit.

This Institution was founded in 1896 by Edwin Murray, who, with no assets but the formula of the treatment and ambition to make the Murray Cure the leading treatment of its kind in the world, began business in a small dwelling house with a single patient at 1212 First Avenue, South, at which place he was located for about eighteen months when he had to secure larger quarters at 137 Tenth Street, North.

A VIEW OF THE MAIN PARLOR

Within eight months his business had outgrown this location and Dr. Murray secured the larger and more pretentious site at 1819 Nicollet Avenue, at which place he conducted the business until December 7, 1906, when he died after a short illness.

After the death of Dr. Murray, his wife, Catherine Murray, who also had much experience in Institute work, incorporated the business as the Murray

Cure Institute Company, of which she is president and treasurer; and was fortunate in securing as Medical Director Dr. R. M. Peters, one of the foremost physicians and surgeons in the city of Minneapolis, and who was consulting physician for seven years at the Institute prior to Dr. Murray's death.

Mr. J. J. Baker was retained as manager, he also having acted in that capacity for Dr. Murray, and being educated in the business by him.

The corps of attendants are the best obtainable, graduate nurses only being employed; and Mr. Duncan Morrison, who is superintendent of nurses, has had twenty years' experience and has three diplomas as graduate nurse.

During the eleven years the Institute has been in operation over five thousand patients have been treated, and of these, ninety per cent have remained in the same condition in which they left the Institute.

On the 12th of April, 1907, the Institute was moved to its new home at 620 Tenth Street, South, this beautiful place having been purchased and furnished newly throughout, and making it the peer of any institute of its kind in the world to-day; the accompanying cut shows the main parlor and the same air of elegance prevails throughout the entire place.

As to references and as to the treatment being conducted ethically, all that is necessary to say is that the Murray Cure has the endorsement of leading physicians and surgeons, hospitals, railroads, public officials, banks and leading business men of the city, and also of the Humane Society and the leading clergymen; and we claim, and justly so, that the Murray Institute is the only institute of its kind in the world to-day that is endorsed as strongly by leading people in the city in which it is located, as well as throughout the entire country wherever it is known.

SECURITY OF ALL SECURITIES

AN INTERVIEW WITH MR. FELTHOUS, ONE OF
THE BUILDERS OF "THE GREAT NORTHWEST"

AT the Great Northwest has been coming into its own during 1907 is conceded by all interests. The development and colonization of the Great Northwest prairies lying between the Twin Cities and the Rocky Mountains, the Iowa line, and the Canadian border, is a subject that is becoming of national importance, and the year 1908 promises to furnish a trend of immigration from the Middle West and Eastern states that will bring many of the best homeseekers into this section.

A representative of **THE WORLD TO-DAY** had a very interesting and meaty interview with Mr. Felthous, who is one of the great builders of this section. The firm of Felthous Land & Investment Company, of St. Paul, Minnesota, which owns thousands of acres of agricultural lands, stands for reliability and integrity and enjoys the confidence of the business and financial interests of the Great Northwest.

In taking up the matter of investment, the opportunities and resources of this great section, Mr. Felthous, in an interview, said: "The question that is coming before the small investor and homeseeker, in what shall I invest my surplus earnings? is a question which arises in the mind of every man who is capable of earning a dollar in excess of his current expenses: The smaller the surplus, the greater the question. Most of these investments are made as a provision for the investor or his family, when his earning days are past. Some buy life insurance, but this is not profitable, being little more than a compulsory saving, as one has to pay the premium when due, or lose all he has invested; others place their savings in a bank which only pays two (2) to four (4) per cent interest per annum, and then they run the risk of the bank failing. Many invest in stocks, many of which have proven of late to be badly watered, or bonds or securities based on highly inflated valuations.

"A first mortgage on real property for a reasonable portion of its true worth is very good, but if the owner can afford to pay you a certain rate of interest, he must have a profit above the interest rate; taxes, etc., in rentals if improved or estimated, advance in value if improved property, therefore, why not own real property, yourself, and realize the highest percentage of profit besides having a security which is the basis of all valuation, on which with the ever-increasing population of these United States, causing a greater demand for land, can not depreciate in value if purchased at a reasonable price, and with every new settler, new railroad and town as well as roads and innumerable improvements of the surrounding country will tend to increase the worth of your property?"

"The question of whether to invest in improved or unimproved lands rests with the investor. If he desires immediate returns, buy a good improved farm from which he will realize an annual cash or share of the crop rental. In the case of cash rental, twenty-five-dollar land will rent for proportionately more than one-hundred-dollar land, and on the share basis the cheaper land will produce as much, and in some cases more than the higher priced land, when in both cases, location, settlement and improvement of the surrounding country is the basis of valuation, and not the quality of soil.

"The investor or speculator, however, prefers to put his money into unimproved lands, as this class of property requires no personal attention, and in most every case enhances in value more rapidly than improved property, which, if poorly managed, is apt to remain stationary in value.

"There is no better place in these United States for such an investment than in that newly cultivated garden between the Missouri River and the Rocky Mountains, namely, western North Dakota and eastern Montana, which has heretofore been one immense pasture, but every pasture is sooner or later put under cultivation, and this is what is now taking place west of the Missouri River."

SOUTH DAKOTA—THE LAND OF PROMISE

of people possessed of money to invest in the "sunshine state." The people of South Dakota are convinced by what they see, and what they have experienced, that fortunes are to be made in the development by actual settlers of the great areas of fertile land waiting for the coming of the thousands who are now farming in some "pent-up Utica" instead of cultivating farms in this state big with golden opportunity. Competent judges assert that nowhere in the country can settlers buy land so fully adapted to farming, at such low prices, as in South Dakota. Good farming land may be bought to-day in this state of golden opportunity for from \$10 to \$100 per acre. Thousands of farmers in South Dakota have done well in farming and stock-raising, and many thousands more can follow their example and likewise achieve prosperity. Moreover, the families which now settle in the state will not be compelled to suffer the privations which the pioneers endured, for railways have gridironed the prairies, school and college buildings and church spires dot the landscape, while banks, stores and newspapers flourish. The state is erecting a beautiful capitol building at Pierre, to cost approximately \$1,000,000, and the whole cost will be provided out of the sale of public lands donated by the federal government, not a cent of taxes being levied against the people to provide this dome-crowned statehouse. What other state can truthfully make such a statement as this?

People have gone to South Dakota, are going and will go there, with increasing numbers, for its healthful climate—it has the lowest death rate of any state in the union; for its sunshine—there were 263 sunshiny days in 1906 (latest figures available); for its school privileges—there are 2,000,000 acres of school land yet unsold and the estimated permanent school fund is \$45,000,000; for its farming opportunities—there are millions of acres of most fertile land ready for the plow and the harvest.

There are business openings in the towns and mining opportunities in the Black Hills—but best of all there are the broad prairies for farming. The quality of the soil of South Dakota is peculiarly adapted for diversified farming. When a farmer in any part of the state tills the

SOUTH DAKOTA STATE FAIR AT HURON
One of the most prominent stock and grain exhibits shown in the West

soil properly, he can, on one hundred and sixty acres, raise cattle, hogs, corn, wheat, barley and all other agricultural products at an enormous profit, owing to the richness of the soil and the favorable climatic conditions.

South Dakota raised in 1905 39,494,105 bushels of wheat, while in 1906, 77,414,351 bushels of corn were produced. Although there is now in the state a population of only 456,000 people, or an average of only six persons to the square mile, the state raises more corn than Minnesota or Michigan; more than all the New England states, New York, North Dakota, Oregon, California, and seven other states, combined. South Dakota is the thirteenth corn-raising state in the union, although at present it is only the thirty-fifth in population. It is the fourth corn-raising state in the number of bushels per capita.

Cattle-raising west of the Missouri River has been one of the most lucrative industries of that section of the state for many years. The rich native grasses, which are chiefly buffalo and prairie bunch, cover the entire range country west of the river and a large area on the east side as well. These grasses are the greatest fat producers of any of the wild or native grasses and are second only to corn for finishing cattle and sheep for market.

The state invites study of its unrivaled farming opportunities. Hon. C. N. McIlvaine, Commissioner of Immigration, Huron. South Dakota, has innumerable facts at his disposal which would-be investors in lands may have for the asking. Mr. A. N. Waters, secretary of the Real Estate Men's Association, De Smet, South Dakota, will also promptly furnish information regarding land values.

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The World To-Day

VOLUME XIV

MARCH, 1908

NUMBER 3

Are We Educating Aristocrats?

RIGHT in the midst of the hurly-burly of trying to get a candidate for the candidacy for the presidency, the American people are undertaking to reform their educational system. There is no man, or for that matter, no woman so poor as not to have somewhere concealed about his or her person a criticism of our schools and colleges. With the zeal of your born reformer these gentlemen and ladies are doing the best they can to reform each other while they are reforming the schools, but they all agree in one thing: our educational system ought to be different from what it is.

One man insists that college education unfits a man for work in foundries and machine shops. Another man insists that the state should pay nothing for maintaining high schools, but should devote its funds to teaching trades. Teachers, trustees and parents are engaged the country over in an intermittent attack upon high school societies, while, emboldened by the general spirit of discontent, some have even dared to attack that bulwark of college loyalty, the college fraternity.

And above all the pedagogical melee there rises one voice lamenting in the best of accents and broad A's that the workingmen on Boston street cars do not rise to let a Harvard professor have a seat.

* * *

They tell us that our education as it now stands, particularly in its so-called "higher" forms, is making aristocrats.

The charge is just true enough to be serious. There are schools and colleges where those families that can afford it pay out a minimum of a

thousand dollars a year for having their sons pass examinations, join fraternities and become enthusiasts over athletic teams.

Many students act like snobs. Their standards of success are measured by income and social position ; their very friendships seem determined by the size of incomes. Their sympathies in college are limited by their cliques and vacation house-parties. They toil not, neither do they study, until with a tutor just before examination ; and yet Solomon in all his glory had no such sense of the importance of Zion as they have of their fraternities.

Are these men not on the highway to contempt of democracy? Are they as eager to forget the Declaration of Independence as are their sisters to marry impecunious titles?

* * *

To find the real student life of the nation one must look away from the half dozen institutions of which these charges are true, to the hundreds of other colleges and universities in which the great bulk of our young men and women are being educated.

A large proportion of these students are working their way. They take care of furnaces, they canvass for books, they wait on tables, they hire out as farm hands. The instruction they get comes from men who themselves, almost without exception, have had the same experience.

* * *

College professors have a contempt for the man who measures the good things of life by their money value. As a class they are full of warm social sympathies and are champions of democracy.

College fraternities, it is true, have erected certain artificial lines between students, but fraternity men, when once they have passed out from college, see in their fraternities only the crucibles where lifelong friendships have been made. In the rush of their ordinary employment they claim no superiority and perpetuate no class feeling.

* * *

The man who knows college men in school and out knows that they are the best friends democracy has. They have their prejudices ; but what man without prejudices is worth anything? They have their friends, but they do not expect workingmen to rise to give them seats in street cars. They see certain dangers in organized labor, but they see even more dangers in predatory wealth.

As long as our colleges turn out this sort of aristocrats, democracy need have no fear.



HENRI FARMAN'S AEROPLANE WINNING THE £1,000 PRIZE

An event in the history of the heavier-than-air type of flying-machines took place just outside of Paris yesterday. Henri Farman in an aeroplane driven by a 40-horse-power eight-cylinder gasoline engine made a successful flight of a circular kilometer. The trip, about four-fifths of a mile in length, was made in the minute twenty-eight seconds at a height of about eighteen feet.

necessary. Vested and financial interests are, however, so involved in the existence of breweries and beer houses - debentures alone being held to the amount of one hundred thousand sterling - that a defence committee has been formed to protect the interests of the government. Interest in beer and the sale of intoxicants throughout the world is almost world-wide. The government is investigating the effects of the prohibition of beer, including national revenue, and the Spanish Cortes and the American Congress have recently passed resolutions in regard

government. The Raisulites who have been held as hostages were released. In the deposition of Sultan Abdel-Aziz, and

THE NEW YORK TIMES, MAY 11, 1911
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the proclamation of Mulai Hafid as his successor, the Mohammedan leaders have been influential, a holy war being announced in his support. The new Sultan sent a commission to Paris to declare his intention of scrupulously observing the terms of the Algeciras treaty, and that the holy war was not against foreigners but against Abd-el-Aziz and the governing

board of Morocco. The French troops have had various serious encounters with the Moors and the Arabs. General Drude, who has been in command of the French troops, has been succeeded by a younger man, General d'Amade. France and Germany, it is reported, are now fortunately in thorough accord on the Moroccan question.

The Nation

Mr. Roosevelt, notwithstanding his decision not to accept a nomination for the presidency, is still President. We expect vigorous English from him, but he has rather surpassed himself in two of his recently published productions. The first is his special message to Congress, which was read to that body January 31. The occasion of the message was twofold: first, to recommend Congress to pass an Employers' Liability Law in such a form as will be constitutional; and second, to advise consideration of the abuse of injunctions in labor cases. President Roosevelt restates vigorously the arguments which he has formerly adduced in favor of making employers engaged in interstate carriage liable for injuries to their employees. Consistently also, he urges that the liability be extended to the em-

ployees of the government — a concession which seems highly desirable, unless we are to regard service to the government in time of war as more sacred than service in times of peace. The difficulty with the law recently declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court was that its provisions were too elastic and generally in excess of the powers of Congress as defined in the Constitution. As yet Congress has paid small attention to the President's exhortations, but we hope before the present session is closed we shall have a law drawn up in accordance with his suggestions. As for the matter of injunctions and labor disputes the President insists that the injunction is highly desirable, if only properly used. The specific remedy which he proposes is that notices should be given to the opposing party. As it now stands there is good ground for the suspicion

WHAT WILL HAPPEN WHEN HE IS OUT LOOSE?
Hendy, in the Duluth *News-Tribune*

CAN HE WALK WITHOUT THE SUPPORT?
Kettner, in the Chicago *Inter Ocean*



The President's
Defense of the
Administration

...of certain...
...are carrying on...
...through the papers...
...means of these adv...
...with unvenomed bitterness...
...treachery, working against success...
...Ex... President Roosevelt declares
that no measure taken to insure hon...
...has been opposed by the representa...
...that he regards as predatory...
...These facts lead the President to
a determination of criticism of the courts.
He declares that no man should hastily
criticize a judge, but at the same time
he declares the judge must expect to
feel the weight of

in... and
are criti-
be public
porations

The message is written with even more
...that the President generally
...It is doubtless
...some of his ex-
...pass beyond the
...statement. Nonetheless
...that the message, with
...principles for
...has been a
...country. In the
...conventions we
...that a presi-
...message to suit the
...Roosevelt has chosen
...for his apologia
...to strengthen the
...which is in danger of

The... publication of the Presi-
...even more personal.
...has been much in the
...papers that he is using his
...to appoint offices
...of the candidacy of Sec-
...February 10 the Presi-
...letter to William Dudley
...of Richmond, Indiana, who had
...regarding the matter. In the
...of this letter he states the

THE HIGH FINANCE PUMP

The Gentlemen in the Background - That evidently is not
intended for our use

Washington, in the Morning Post, 1904

farce seemed to have been exhausted. It is a legitimate form of drama, and when well constructed is for the most part more true to life than comedy. The brilliant success attendant upon the premier of "Twenty Days in the Shade," from the French of Hennequin and Veber, will mark the beginning of a return to this form of entertainment. Other managers will seek to follow the man who blazed a new trail, or who had sagacity enough to uncover an old one.

The season of mid-winter grand opera, both in New York and Chicago, has been longer than that of previous years, and the furore over big-salaried stars remains unabated. It may be justly said that New York is music-mad, though most

critics assert that the madness is affectation, and that grand opera is rarely understood or appreciated by the untrained. The ovations attendant upon the appearances of Mme. Tetrazzini have been described as thrilling. The singer is in magnificent voice, and she interprets her rôles with such facility, such grace, such variety of tone and color, that every aria is applauded to the echo. In the West the San Carlo Opera Company featuring Nordica, Olitzka, Alice Nielsen, Noria and Constantino, have been giving performances which for fine balance, elaborate attention to detail and careful preparation of all factors, have been the best heard in years, while an indefinite season of grand opera in English with a well-balanced company of singers, giving performances at popular prices, has proved a boon to the music-loving masses.

The Religious World

At a meeting of the Religious Education Association held in Washington, February 11-13, Professor Francis G. Peabody, of Harvard University, was chosen president. Professor Peabody has been connected with the association since its formation and brings to it a wide vision and experience. The convention at Washington was largely attended and was one of great importance. Its general theme was, "The relation of moral and religious education to the life of the nation." The association was received by President Roosevelt, who made an address in the East Room of the White House.

The demand for Sunday closing is becoming ever more widespread. Generally it is farthest possible from old-time "blue laws," and involves chiefly the closing of saloons on Sunday. In certain cities an effort has been made to make even this national legislation distasteful by applying the Sunday-closing laws indiscriminately. It is reported that the Ministerial Association of Rochester, New York, to offset this abuse, has drawn up a plan by which Sunday amusements could be regulated. It asks the city council to create a Sunday Recreation

Commission of five members. This commission will see that park concerts are given on Sunday, in the open air in summer and in halls in winter; that other harmless recreations be offered; that public school buildings be open Sunday afternoons and evenings for reading and conversation, and that actors and others interested in general amusements be given a day of rest. This proposal looks like a step in the right direction.

The annual conference of the officers of the foreign missionary boards of America was held in New York, in the last week of January. Representatives of over thirty separate societies were present and discussed matters of great importance to their common work and interests. The spirit of coöperation and comity was well indicated under severe tests. The great increase in the extent of Protestant foreign missionary work is not generally realized. The number of missionaries is now over 15,000, with over 92,000 native helpers. Those who have been received into full membership in the 36,000 stations and out-stations now number considerably over a million and a half, while in the schools there are 1,300,000 under instruction. For the support of this work

were happy and contented, despite the almost universal state of disease and poverty. Shortly after the transfer of the island I asked a number of *peons* what they would like most of all, with the understanding that the range of the inquiry was limitless. In every case the wish was for something material, and the most ambitious was for a set of furniture. I could not find any desire for education, perhaps because they knew practically nothing of it, and must confess to surprise at the quick response to the opportunities we have put in the way of these extraordinarily illiterate people.

Spain turned over to us one public school building. Now the whole country is dotted with schoolhouses, so that one is within easy reach of every soul in the island. And the pupils, as a rule, show remarkable aptitude and inclination to learn. The census of 1910 will show that we have wiped out the reproach of superlative illiteracy under which Porto Rico has lain for generations. But education is a sorry adjunct to an empty stomach. The combination breeds agitators and anarchists. Happily we are working quite as effectually to improve the material condition of the Porto Ricans. The steam-roller and the schoolmaster were brought into play simultaneously and the good works of both are bearing early fruit.

No other factor is comparably potent with transportation facilities in promoting the welfare of an agricultural people. The physical peculiarities of Porto Rico will tend to confine its railroads to the coastal line designed to encircle the island, and short loops and branches of it. The lines of communication and transportation in the interior must always be mainly cart roads. The cost of constructing these averages \$10,000 a mile and their maintenance is proportionally expensive, but the commerce and industry generated by their existence would make them worth while at a quadrupled outlay.

Spain left 171 miles of main highway in use. We have already added more than three hundred miles as part of a system which is planned to supply the needs of every part of the island. The treasurer of Porto Rico recently disposed of \$1,000,000 of the island's bonds at a premium in New York. The entire pro-

ceeds of this transaction will be devoted to road-building.

An American company has succeeded the French corporation in the control of the railroad. The disjointed sections have been connected and there is now a continuous line from Carolina, through San Juan, Arecibo, Mayaguez, and other important towns, to Ponce. Several branches to interior points have also been constructed. American locomotives have replaced the toy engines which were incessantly breaking down, and the permanent way and general equipment have been greatly improved. The line has only completed half the proposed circuit and it is far from being perfect in operation or fully adequate in service, but it marks a great advance in transportation facilities over the old conditions.

San Juan and Ponce both have modern electric street railway systems, the latter extending out two miles to La Playa, the port town. An electric line is in course of construction to run from the capital over the route of the military road to Aibonito.

Those who are thoroughly familiar with the island and its resources express the opinion that it will easily support a population of two millions when the road system is completed. As fast as the highways are opened to traffic, the lands adjoining rise greatly in value and are immediately put under cultivation. There has been a general enhancement of real estate values, and land that lacked buyers at \$10 and \$15 an acre now sells for \$50 an acre. Following the increase in transportation facilities, marked improvements in plantations were made at many points, and it is noticeable that the narrow-tire, two-wheeled ox-cart is gradually giving place to the American wagon.

With the expansion of agricultural industries, in which nearly all the people are interested, wages have more than doubled and the masses have adopted a higher standard of living. In 1906, Porto Rico took from us three hundred thousand pairs of shoes and this represented a great advance in consumption. Last year the shipments included just twice as many pairs and the general quality was better. The imports of the last few years show enormous increases in foodstuffs, clothing, tools and furniture, much the

greater part being in response to the demand of the peasant class.

The prosperity, or otherwise, of an agricultural people may be unmistakably read in the records of their commerce. During the last half century of Spanish rule, there were but four years in which the balance of trade was in favor of Porto Rico. In 1900 the value of the exports to the United States from the island were slightly in excess of \$3,000,000, and of the exports from the United States to Porto Rico, somewhat more than \$4,500,000. The shipments from the United States to Porto Rico for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1907, were \$25,686,285 as against \$19,224,556 for the previous year. The shipments from Porto Rico to the United States for the same years were \$22,070,133 and \$19,142,461 respectively. The total export trade of the island for 1907 was \$26,996,300, a gain of \$3,738,770 over 1906.

The most remarkable changes have taken place in the industrial economy of the island during the past few years. In the final period of Spanish rule coffee was by far the principal product of Porto Rico. Nearly half of the entire area under cultivation was devoted to it and in the exports it represented a value more than twice as great as that of all the other shipments combined. Of the eight hundred thousand *peons*, one-third, at least, were dependent, directly or indirectly, upon the coffee industry.

Upon annexation to the United States the protected markets of Spain and Cuba were closed to the Porto Rican planter and the utmost endeavors have failed to secure a sale for his product in the United States. The insular coffee is better than the Brazilian bean and fully equal to the Costa Rican "Mocha and Java," which constitute the bulk of our supply. But Americans have almost as poor taste in the matter of coffee as they have in that of tea, and the only hope for the island industry would appear to lie in such intensive cultivation as will greatly increase the yield to the acre and allow of the output being sold in competition with the cheap, low-grade products of South America. The proposition to put a five-cent duty on foreign importations and so protect the Porto Rican berry at an *annual expense of \$50,000,000* to the Ameri-

can consumer is not likely to be considered by Congress.

The problem of the resuscitation of the coffee industry is an intricate and a momentous one. It is safe to say that one-fourth of the population would be benefited by a revival of the old-time source of prosperity, and a large proportion of these are people whom it will be difficult to make prosperous in any other way. Coffee may be cultivated with comparatively little outlay of capital and it is grown to advantage on the interior elevations, which are adapted to no other product. This will account for the fact that, despite the severe depression, the plantations have not been abandoned, as much as one hundred and eighty-five thousand acres still lying under the bush. The total value of the coffee exported in the last fiscal year was \$4,693,004 as compared with a valuation of \$12,222,599 in 1897. Planters are almost unanimous in the opinion that the salvation of the industry depends upon securing the United States market, or in some form of protection, but the investigators at the experiment station of Mayaguez are sanguine of finding a solution to the difficulty in improved methods of cultivation and preparation for market.

Fortunately, we have effected an offset to the coffee collapse in the expansion of the sugar and tobacco industries, with the prospect of a profitable fruit trade in the near future. American capital and methods have worked wonders in these respects and the principal products of the island now enjoy an assured position.

The sugar business is undergoing an entire reorganization on the most scientific and economical lines. Formerly sugar, as an article of Porto Rican export, was far behind coffee. Now it has considerably passed the highest mark ever attained by the berry. Practically all the land adapted to the growth of the cane is under cultivation, but it is believed that the crop may be trebled under improved conditions. Porto Rico, like the Hawaiian Islands, has its wet and dry sides. The southern valleys, which embrace a great part of the sugar belt, need irrigation, and the United States Reclamation Service is investigating the subject with promise of satisfactory results.

Under Spain the tobacco crop of Porto

Rico was hardly worth consideration. Last year the export of cigars alone approximated \$5,000,000 in value and there is every indication of a large expansion of the industry. The most approved methods of cultivation and manufacture are in practice. Around Caguas, which is the center of the tobacco district, one finds hundreds of acres under one cover in several instances. High-grade wrappers are thus grown in large quantities.

A new but promising industry is that of fruit growing, which, as in Cuba, is mainly in the hands of Americans. There are now upward of six thousand acres in oranges and a considerable area devoted to pineapples and grapefruit. Oranges grow wild in the hill region and on the west and south coasts. They are very sweet and of fine flavor but require careful packing. This has prevented their exportation until our own people took the task in hand. At present about two hundred and fifty thousand boxes are shipped annually, but with improved cultivation and greater transportation facilities, both inland and ocean, the shipments will be very largely increased. Pineapple culture has become quite extensive during the past two years. The plantations are chiefly on the north coast and in the Mayaguez district. In connection with these, several large canning factories have been established. The industry has proved very profitable to the planters. Many of them who paid \$50 an acre for their land

were able to show a profit of one hundred per cent on the investment the first year.

Porto Rico is not at present, whatever it may be under greater development, a country for the small capitalist. He may go to Cuba and do very well, securing land at one-third the price that he would have to pay for it in Porto Rico. Nor can the mechanic or farmer be advised to emigrate to this one of our insular possessions. The former could not live on the wages paid for skilled labor and the latter would find the venture unprofitable until after the interior is better supplied with roads, and markets are more extensively established. Ultimately Porto Rico may afford homes to a large number of our agricultural population.

Many promising industries have not yet been incepted. The systematic cultivation of the cocoanut palm for copra would undoubtedly prove profitable, and the necessary land can be had cheaply. Porto Rico only needs a line of fast and regular steamers to supply the United States with a large quantity of vegetables, and in a dozen different directions new industries may be expected to arise as the constantly improving economic and agricultural conditions warrant.

Even allowing for the splendid natural resources of the island and its previous stagnation, we have made a splendid record in Porto Rico, and one that probably is unparalleled in the history of colonization.

GOVERNOR CHARLES EVANS HUGHES

BY

HOWARD B. GROSE

THAT is the strangest man I ever met. You can't make any sort of trade with him; you can't approach him on the side of personal advantage; you can't seem to touch his political ambition. He is beyond me. *The fool simply does right the whole time!*"

This was the verdict of a noted politician who had vainly tried to secure Governor Hughes' support for a personal scheme. That last sentence tells the story.

I.

It is the story of American possibilities told once more. Here are the outlines: Born in Glens Falls, New York, April 11, 1862; son of a Baptist minister who came to this country from England in 1855; father Welsh; mother Dutch-Scotch-English-Irish; a precocious child, reading at three and a half; presenting to his father a full-blown course of home study at five, because so much time was wasted by repetition in the kindergarten; taught mathematics and elementary studies by his mother, and a master of fractions at seven; taught the classics by his father; fitted for college at fourteen; graduate of Brown University with high honors at eighteen; academy teacher for a year; Columbia Law School graduate in 1884, capturing fellows' prize of \$500 a year for three years; at twenty-two in a law office, and presently made partner, later marrying senior partner's daughter; thorough student with unusual powers of acquisition and application; for two years (1891-3) professor of commercial and contract law at Cornell; again in active practice in New York, this time head of a firm; known among lawyers for amazing knowledge of contract and constitutional law, and keen discernment of the pith of a case; earning a good income, in part as consulting counsel; domestic, with charming family; *mountain-climber* in summer vacation time;

quiet, devoted to his profession, working member of his church, with special fondness for a class of young men; utterly unknown to the great public — that brings us down to 1905.

II.

That year 1905 gave a terrific shock to the world-conscience in its revelations of business corruption and the betrayal of fiduciary trusts by men in high positions. The gas investigation, which came first, was but a prelude. It marked Counsel Hughes, however, as the man who knew how to ask questions. Behind the questions lay a knowledge of the intricacies of gasmaking and gas-stock manipulating that made gas magnates gasp, while the enforced answers gave away their iniquitous and plundering schemes. The result was the first notable victory of the people over monopoly, and the enactment of laws, drafted by Mr. Hughes, which created a gas commission and put the state in proper control of the situation.

This matter out of the way, Mr. Hughes went to Switzerland to climb mountains and among their heights forget the depths of metropolitan financiering. Meanwhile, the Equitable disclosures had stirred the legislature, and the Armstrong Insurance Investigating Committee needed a counsel. The chairman knew whom he wanted, and cabled Mr. Hughes. He accepted on the one condition that the probing was to be thorough, and not to be stopped by any consideration whatever, financial, social or political, regardless of where it led. It was fortunate that he made the condition, for as he foresaw, the time came when he had to hold the committee to it. It was when he had discovered the book kept by Mr. Perkins, containing the secret contributions of policyholders' money to the Republican campaign funds through Mr. Odell and Senator Platt. This was the crisis. Ex-Governor Odell, political boss,

friend of Harriman, tried to stop things at this point, intimating broadly that to go on might lead even to the White House door. Mr. Hughes compelled the production of the book. Then he prepared to put Mr. Odell and Senator Platt on the witness stand, and Mr. Creelman describes what followed in this way:

A member of the committee demurred. "I think it would be a mistake to call either Mr. Odell or Senator Platt," he said.

Mr. Hughes smiled and showed his upper row of big, flat buck-teeth.

"Of course the committee is always in control of its counsel," he said, in a steady, even tone, "but it must not be forgotten that it was expressly agreed that if I should find myself unable to carry out the committee's instructions I might resign my fee and make public my reasons for so doing."

No member of the committee ever again suggested the sparing of any individual or the covering up of a fact; and the tracing of campaign contributions to Bliss and Cortelyou, of the National Committee, made no difference to the pitiless man with the probe. Odell and Platt had to take their place among the others on the witness stand. The blasting of reputations was appalling, and public confidence was shaken as perhaps never before in our history. Merciless as death seemed the calm, immovable, imperturbable Question-mark incarnate.

His powers of physical and mental endurance were almost beyond belief. Night after night he would work with his assistants and stenographers until two, three and four o'clock, following up the clues gained from the testimony of the day preceding, mastering the involved bookkeeping which expert accountants had failed to comprehend, framing the interrogations and course of procedure for the following session; then snatching a few hours of sleep, and appearing at the investigation cool, collected, alert, every faculty in full play. He was a marvel to all who witnessed the scenes in that committee room. He spared no witness. Yet there was no passion, no personal animus.

This period can not be passed over with less detail, because in that investigation came out all the qualities of the man, including a sturdiness of moral character

and a determining sense of duty so rare as to attract scarcely less attention than his wonderful power of probing after concealed facts. While the investigation was in progress he was nominated for mayor of New York, but declined because, as he said, "I have simply to do my duty as I see it. In my judgment I have no right to accept the nomination. A paramount public duty forbids it."

The public hailed this decision with gladness. It was no light thing to turn down a nomination to an office greater in power than many a governorship. But here was a man not to be diverted from doing his duty. That sounded a new note, for which the newly aroused conscience of the people was ready. The result was that when Mr. Hughes had made his report, the reformatory laws which followed placed New York in the front rank for effective control of the life insurance business, and the interests of the policyholders were safeguarded.

III.

Nothing was more natural than that the people should name him for Governor of New York, when it came time for nominations, and it was seen that Hearst was to represent the radical element. The party leaders were against Hughes, and it looked as though he had no chance, when overnight the opposition sentiment vanished, and he was nominated by acclamation. He had lent no help to the movement in his favor. He said with absolute sincerity that he preferred his profession to public office, but if the people summoned him, his duty as a citizen was paramount to his preferences. Further than that he would not go.

Notified of his nomination, as he sat in his library on West End Avenue, he telegraphed to the convention this acceptance:

"The Republican party has been called to defend the honor of the state and to represent the common sense of the people and the cause of decent government. I shall accept the nomination without pledge other than to do my duty according to my conscience. If elected, it will be my ambition to give the state a sane, efficient and honorable administration, free from taint of bossism or servitude to any private interest."

That very night he mapped out a cam-

paigned strenuous enough to satisfy President Roosevelt, whose advice to the convention undoubtedly settled the matter of the nomination. And the next day the nominee was closing up his law affairs so that he could devote himself to a whirlwind campaign as assiduously as he had to the insurance investigation. That campaign was an eye-opener even to those who thought they knew Mr. Hughes. He changed so greatly in his method of speaking and in adaptability that his friends were agape with wonder. Nobody suspected it was in him to take the stump and make good with all kinds of audiences. But he did it. And he did it without sacrificing a principle or even a bit of his dignity. He was no "hail fellow well met" with the boys; there was no clap-trap or playing to the galleries in his speeches; nobody thought of slapping him on the back. He won squarely on his merit.

It was his absolute and unescapable sincerity that carried the day. He talked straight from the shoulder. Mr. Hearst called him "the animated feather duster," and thought he had done a smart and effective thing in fastening such an epithet on his adversary. There was no reply in kind. Mr. Hughes was always the same courteous gentleman, indulgent in no personalities, made no flings, held to a high plane of discussion. But how he exposed the pretenses and false principles and bare hypocrisy of the opposition! His exposition was as merciless as his examination of an insurance witness. He made hundreds of speeches, sometimes ten in a day; but he did not utter a sentence that he need wish to retract, or that weakened his cause. He did not repeat himself. He developed a simply marvelous capacity for speechmaking of a high quality. His points stuck, and his illustrations illustrated. When it was over, the party leaders conceded without a dissenting voice that the entire campaign had been dominated and carried to its conclusion by the nominee. If elected, the credit would be his in full degree.

Elected he was, and the only one on his ticket of whom that could be said. A Republican governor, with every other state officer democratic, it was a novel position. He knew that the Democrats *had made an exception in his favor*, and

that he was free to be the governor of all the people of the state. Without a pledge or promise, untrammelled, the lawyer who had no practical experience in politics or public life faced a task that would test all his powers. There were plenty to predict that when pitted against the experienced legislators and lobbyists of the capitol, the new governor would find himself no match for those who certainly would prepare pitfalls for him. The people, however, believed in him. He knew it, and that was where he had the best of it.

Within a week after he took the executive chair it was perfectly plain that he was governor, and that in his conception of duty a governor was to govern. The party leaders were aghast. He turned down their selections for office, and informed them that it was his duty to select, not theirs. There is plentiful authority for saying that even the presidential intimation of preference only served to solidify the governor in his independence. He was sorrowfully given up as hopeless. But it had to be acknowledged that his appointments were without exception admirable. The men chosen were chosen because they were experts in the work that was to be done, not because they had a "pull" or a record of political service. And the people felt that here was something new under the sun.

A new sense of the dignity of office and the nobility of true public service seemed to radiate from Albany. For to begin with, this strange governor, after his election, actually gave up his law business, shut off entirely his source of revenue from his profession — at a sacrifice of tens of thousands of dollars, concerning which one would never hear from him — and moved his family to Albany, even taking his church letter with him. Having accepted public office, he felt it his duty to give himself wholly to that office, although the ten-thousand-dollar salary would represent only a single retainer.

Governor Hughes is the type of the new order in politics. He may be classified as a public servant in distinction from a politician. He is a servant instead of a seeker. He is in office because the office sought him, not he the office. "No party and no leader of a political organization," he says, "shall dare take the posi-

tion that there is anything above honorable service to the state." But his idea of honorable service is not a common one.

One of the hardest shocks he gave to the old-timers was when he abolished the secret chamber and took his place at the big desk in the large executive room where everybody comes in. In other days this was the reception room, while the governor occupied the inner of two smaller rooms, the first containing his private secretary. This made the secret conclave possible. But such an arrangement did not accord with Governor Hughes' ideas of democratic accessibility and honest consultation. What could the politicians do when they sought the governor to have a private conference, and found that they must talk to him without secrecy? An Albany correspondent gives a description of the new order and its results.

A country leader had come in to have a consultation. With uncertain glance at the Governor he approached and assumed a bluff air of familiarity. Instantly the lines around the mouth of the Governor tightened. He seized the proffered hand.

"What can I do for you?" he asked guardedly.

"Oh, I want to see you in private about a matter up our way," and the boss directed an inquiring glance toward the inside room.

"Sit down," invited the Governor, indicating a chair two feet from his own and seating himself before his caller could recover himself. The latter sank into the chair uneasily. The Governor with an encouraging smile waited for him to begin.

"Why, er—er, Governor, there are some matters about politics and legislation I want to talk to you about in private."

"Oh, well, go ahead," said the Governor, looking directly at his caller. "No one will interrupt us here. But I think you have come to the wrong place about legislation. I am not a member of the legislature."

"Oh, well, you know, I understand that, you know—know," and the boss was evidently disconcerted. He looked around the room, noted the proximity of half a dozen men who had come in and ranged themselves on the sofas and chairs along the south wall, and began to talk with obvious embarrassment. He didn't

say one-half he intended, nor in the way he meant.

The Governor listened attentively, nodded only to indicate that he understood, but did not make any direct statement or comment. And when the political boss awkwardly shook hands with him and faded through the door, his cigar was bunched in one of his hands and he looked sheepishly at the other men waiting for an audience.

IV.

One year now Governor Hughes has been in office, and what is the record? Quite as remarkable as anything that preceded. His first message was a piece of revolutionary but constructive statesmanship, the central feature of which was a comprehensive scheme for the state regulation of all public-service corporations through a Public Service Commission, to be appointed by the Governor and responsible to him, with power of removal in his hands. This was a counter move to that for national control, keeping the power in the state, but bringing the corporations under a direct and stringent rule and accountability. It was an overshadowing proposition, and it staggered the corporations and the legislative leaders and the lobbyists. Bills were introduced to carry out the recommendations, but it was freely declared that the legislature would never enact such drastic laws, or place such power in the hands of a governor and his appointees. The Governor said nothing. He had done his duty in recommending such legislation as he deemed best for the state. For the rest, the legislative function was responsible. This, too, was a position so novel that the politicians shook their heads and gave it up. A governor who would not use patronage to secure the passage of bills was beyond their comprehension.

According to promise, the Governor began an investigation of the state departments. It was evident that the insurance department was in need of a new head, since under Superintendent Kelsey bad conditions remained unchanged. The Governor conducted the inquiry himself, having found this to be within his power, and the officer was subjected to the same kind of grilling that had proved fatal to many abler men. He made a poor show-

ing, and his incompetency was so glaring that self-respect should have led him to resign; but he refused to do so, and his case was made a test of the relative strength of the Governor and the leaders in the legislature. Under the whip the majority of the Senate voted to retain the superintendent, and there was great rejoicing over the Governor's humiliating defeat, as it was described. Evidently his reform measures had no chance of passing, and he was doomed to political destruction. The combined forces of such bosses as Raines and McCarren, Republican and Democrat together in defense of threatened monopoly, were in possession of the field.

What then did this unusual Governor do? Turned to the people, who formed the constituencies of the legislators. In two public speeches he told the people just how matters stood between the executive and the lawmakers. Quick and imperative was the response. When the remonstrances came in from their districts, there was consternation in the camp; and when a caucus call was refused by the Republican leader the Governor's fighting cap was on, and within two days the caucus was held, and the party was pledged to carry out his wishes. The pressure had not come from him, for he consistently declined to interfere with the legislative function; but the aroused and indignant people told their representatives what they wanted in such unmistakable way that the bills carrying out the Governor's recommendations were passed, and the victory was now all on the other side. The appeal to the people—the new method—was an unexampled success. This was the new type of politics.

One other strange thing must be chronicled, because its effect was to make Governor Hughes national in prestige and influence, and a hundredfold more conspicuous than anything he had previously done. In response to what was deemed a popular demand a bill was passed establishing a two-cent-a-mile railroad fare throughout the state. Other states had taken or were contemplating such legislative action. What was the consternation when Governor Hughes vetoed this bill, with such clear reason for his action that the real nature of such legislation, enacted *without thorough investigation* into the

conditions of the railroads affected, became apparent, and the veto commanded the approval of thoughtful citizens. But whether the people approved the Governor's action or not, they realized anew that here was a man who cared nothing for popular favor as against his conviction of justice and sense of right.

Here are his memorable words to the legislature, which perhaps more than any other one thing put a presidential stamp upon him:

Injustice on the part of railroad corporations toward the public does not justify injustice on the part of the state toward the railroad corporations. The action of the government should be fair and impartial, and upon this every citizen, whatever his interest, is entitled to insist. We shall make matters no better, but worse, if to cure one wrong we establish another. The fact that those in control of railroad corporations have been guilty of grossly improper financing and of illegal and injurious discriminations in charges points clearly to the necessity of effective state action, but does not require or warrant arbitrary reprisals. In dealing with these questions democracy must demonstrate its capacity to act upon deliberation and to deal justly.

V.

Many estimates of Governor Hughes have been made, and many more will be, for he is bound to be in the public eye. There is no disagreement, however, as to his sincerity. That is an outstanding quality. It is written in his face and speaks out of his clear eye. You can not see him and doubt his honesty. His most inveterate political enemy admits that the Governor says what he thinks and stands by it. Next to this trait is strength, a kind of ruggedness that settles many things without debate. When he says No, that is instinctively felt to be the end of it. He does not speak or decide hastily. He takes time to make up his mind; when it is made up, no one as yet has found a way to make him change it. One of his fixed habits is optimism. His foundation word is duty.

He is concededly dignified, and in manner reserved and grave. Hence he has been called cold and unsympathetic, and classed with President Harrison as a man who had no magnetism. This is far from the truth. When there is occasion to smile, no man has a brighter one than Governor Hughes, nor a heartier manner. But he does not go about like a flattering and fawning self-seeker, currying favor

his drives, and you will find that he loves
an outdoor game as well as the next.

MEETING HIS CONSTITUENTS
An answer to those who say he is cold and not genial

more remarkable. In one place I followed a path for two hours which was nothing more than roughly constructed stone steps zigzagging up the mountain side. At the end of these steps I found myself on a sloping shelf containing a hundred acres

them. Here is what he was doing. He was leading one. The second was tied to the tail of the first; the third to the tail of the second, and the fourth to the tail of the third. In this style of Indian file, man and horses were traveling over mountain trails where the uninitiated would find it dizzy and difficult work to go with his hands free to help his feet.

Andorra consists of one main valley and several smaller tributary valleys lying among overtowering mountains. Many of these mountains are well wooded near their tops. Below the forests the mountain sides are used for the most part for pasturing goats, sheep and cattle. Lower down there is some terracing. These terraces and the bottoms of the valleys are irrigated and planted largely to tobacco. There are, however, some meadows, and these were beautifully green in the middle of September when I was there. Near the village of Andorra they were just cutting a crop of hay. This hay an Andorran gets to his barn either on his own back or on the back of his horse, mule or donkey. The animal wears a rack, and when loaded the combination looks like a small stack of hay on four spindle legs. Close at hand, the nose of the animal can be discovered at one end of the stack, and it looks not unlike the head of a turtle when drawn well back under its shell.

From time immemorial the Andorrans have been famous smugglers, and to-day the smuggling of tobacco is one of the most lucrative professions in the country. It is, however, confined to young men, for it is strenuous work. French and Spanish patrols watch the Andorran frontier day and night. To get into France, I was told, is difficult and dangerous work, while entering Spain is an uncertain matter. A young man takes a load of tobacco on his back, and, avoiding all paths and trails where he would be most likely to run into patrols, he often scales the highest mountains and in this way gets down into Spain. Should he find himself within sight of a Spanish patrol, he does not run but sits down on the ground and waits for the patrol to approach. When the latter is as near as the rules of the game permit (a certain distance has been established as proper by long custom), he stops, and, leaning against his gun, gazes over at the Andorran. The Andorran

A STREET IN THE VILLAGE OF ANDORRA

Andorra is the capital of the republic, but some of its streets have stone steps cut in the mountain side

or so of tillable grain land with a small pilgrimage chapel, a pretty little lake and three patriarchal homesteads.

For some distance up these steps, I was accompanied by an Andorran and his donkey. The donkey carried a heavy load on his back, but he took the steps quite as easily as I. At the first fork, master and donkey turned off to the right. They were going to another little shelf on the mountain side farther along, or perhaps to a forest camp or a shepherd's hut.

Often these Andorran paths are steeper than steep stairs. In places they lead along the edges of precipices. Almost always they are so narrow that it is just possible for two animals to pass in meeting. One Andorran I met on one of these steep and narrow paths was taking four young horses home to pasture. He had bought them at the live-stock fair down at Ax, and his manner of handling single-handed all four horses was interesting. *To drive them was obviously impossible, and it was also impossible to lead all of*

him out of his sound nap. He turned his head around and looked at my bicycle with blinking eyes and a most surprised expression on his donkey face. His long and eloquent ears pointed straight at me. He doubtless thought I was "It," but he did not run. Perhaps, being a lazy donkey, he was afraid he would have to walk back. What he did do, however, he did quickly. Bunching his feet, he commenced to go round and round in a small circle something like a dog does when he goes after his tail. The poor man, who was rather slow in comprehending the situation, promptly fell off, all except one foot which caught in the hayrack. But the donkey did not mind that and kept on going, while his master, making strange gestures with his two hands, his head and his free foot, followed the donkey something like the tail follows the kite. It looked to me as if the donkey was trying to have a little game of "Crack the Whip," with his master as the cracker.

I dismounted as soon as I could to see what I could do, for I was considerably

haste, I mounted my bicycle and lost no time in putting a couple of miles more behind me.

After having incited a mule with a half load of hay on his back to race me, and after having put into the mind of a second donkey thoughts of suicide, that is, of jumping over the edge of a high bridge, I gave up all idea of hurry, and as often as I met anything with four legs, I got off and hid my bicycle until it had passed.

Eleven miles from Lerida the rough road had succeeded in finishing up one of the tires of my bicycle, and the rest of the distance I covered in a two-wheeled stage coach with my bicycle suspended beneath. Thus ended my trip into and out of Andorra, the land of patriarchs and the land of the simple life.

The probabilities are that in the course of another quarter of a century a good, broad, modern macadam highway will bisect the nation. France and Spain have agreed to construct roads reaching to the Andorran frontier, while Andorra is going to connect the French and Spanish roads by a road through her principal valley. Spain is short of funds, but during the past couple of years has broken ground for something over a mile of her part of this new road. France is really building her road, while Andorra has constructed bridges and laid the foundation of about four miles of magnificent road. This now stands ready for the steam roller and the top dressing, but can not be finished for the Andorrans have no steam roller and have no means of getting one until France finishes her road and opens the way to the frontier. At present this new road in Andorra is a river of small, sharp, broken stone.

But of all startling twentieth-century innovations in this land of patriarchs, the most astonishing is the fact that the inn at Escaldas has a real bathtub. Escaldas is a village with hot sulphur springs. The innkeeper has piped some of the water into his cellar and built a bathtub. He charges only twenty cents for a bath, which is really cheap considering the amount of water one gets. The bathtub is as deep as it is long. If any future visitor to Andorra, sojourning at Escaldas, wishes to sit down in his bath, I advise him to smuggle a high chair into the tub with him.

AN INN AT ESCALDAS

Also a flock of goats starting out on their way to pasture

worried about the health of the poor native. The donkey, however, did not want to have anything to do with me. After a little he got tired and stopped of his own sweet will. The man freed his foot, and then I began to feel for my own health. The gentleman's tranquillity of mind was completely destroyed, and he had lots to say about it. But I did not understand, and as soon as I could, without awkward

ancient chroniclers relate that at the introduction of Christianity, about the tenth century, it was the custom on solemn occasions to hang the vast festal halls with wonderful specimens of tapestries, generally illustrating some valiant deed of the Viking-chief host. One of the most curious and best-preserved specimens dates from the twelfth century, and is exhibited in the Museum of Industrial Art in Christiania, among a collection of others, none of later date than the seventeenth century. With this invaluable collection at hand, and possessing some minor specimens among the family heirlooms, she began an earnest study of the curious archaical treatment of motive and the remarkable combination of colors in which these old artisans excelled.

Before attempting any really serious work and to perfect herself thoroughly in

her technic, Fru Hansen visited the principal continental art centers, only to come back more than ever convinced that she was destined to become the recreator of this well-nigh forgotten art, once the pride of Norway. One of the principal obstacles in the way to her success was the question of colors. None of the modern dyestuffs gave satisfaction either in brilliancy or permanency to be compared with those of the ancient, which even after centuries retained an incomparable luster and distinctness of shading. After having tried in vain to get satisfactory results from colors and materials ordinarily used in tapestries, Fru Hansen decided to discover, if possible, some old formulæ for the dyeing of the wool. This was a far more serious undertaking than she had expected. Wherever she had been told that a family possessed the searched-for

THE FAIRY PALACE

The maiden, searching for the fairy castle, asks the Northwind to carry her thither. Almost exhausted after his long flight, he sinks into the water within reach of the shore

"transparent method" in weaving by which she obtains some singularly beautiful effects.

It was during the international exposition in Paris, 1900, that Fru Hansen became famous, and it is but just to say that this fame has increased year after year. In my capacity as juror-expert of the industrial arts at this exposition, my relations with the jurors from all countries were quite intimate and it was very interesting to listen to their comments on the exhibit of the modern Norwegian tapestries. The French, German and Italian representatives were perhaps the most enthusiastic in their praise and all agreed that this was a distinct and most happy departure from the up to that time prevalent styles. The French connoisseurs, accustomed to the productions of the far-famed national manufactory of the Gobelins, which, through an excess of technical perfection in color schemes and elaboration of detail, have degenerated into a well-nigh hybrid sort of painting, hailed with delight the creations of this remarkable woman.

The principal pieces exhibited at that time by Fru Hansen were "The Five Wise and the Five Foolish Virgins," "The Dance of Salome," and "The Milky Way." The latter was by far the one which received the most attention, both from its commanding size and from the wonderful treatment of the theme. The composition as a whole is very impressive in its gracious simplicity, and the color arrangement is so subtle in its richness that one really does not know what to say. In the depth of the azure heavens, some maidens in diaphanous drapery, their foreheads encircled with starry diadems, slowly tread their silent path, gracefully bearing aloft the filmy meshes of a broad veil strewn with myriads of stars. The charmingly sad naïveté of their poise and expression recall Heine's lines:

Stars with golden feet are wand'ring
Yonder, and they gently weep
That they can not earth awaken
Who in night's arms is asleep.

An interesting bit of detail is that in the seemingly confused mass of stars, the constellations are correctly traced. In the border, woven in large Hebrew characters, is the inscription (Gen. 1:14):

"And they shall be lights in the firmament of the heavens to give light to the earth. And it was so." As a specimen of decorative art it left nothing to be desired; it now belongs to the Staats Museum of Hamburg.

It goes without saying that Fru Hansen during the past years has reaped a well-earned reward for her work, in always being adjudged the highest honors in her class of exhibits, and from the pecuniary benefit derived from the sale of her works. She is now represented in almost all of the leading museums in Europe. Among the very latest examples of her art are "In the Garden of Roses," "The Fairy Palace," and "Semper Vadentes"; these were exhibited in the last Salon. In these three she again shows her masterful blending of color somewhat tempered by the introduction of neutral tints.

Of the three, "In the Garden of Roses" was admired by a great many and even the artist holds it in high esteem, but I confess that to me it is not nearly so satisfying as are the two others or some of her earlier works. It lacks that peculiar vitality which is one of her chief charms, the composition is elegiac with a touch of pre-Raphaelism, and with its exquisite though rather cloying colors, suggests the beautiful verses of "The Nightingale and the Rose," by a late erratic genius.

Totally different in character is "The Fairy Palace." Here we see the artist in one of her happiest moods. The motive for this tapestry is taken from Asbjørnsen's charming fairy-tale, "Eastward from the Sun and Westward from the Moon." The simple and poor little serving maid, in eager search for the fairy castle, goes to the wild and boisterous Northwind and beseeches him to show her the way thither. He first gruffly refuses but finally consents to take her on his back. High through the air he rushes with the tiny maid clinging in terror to his back. Over moor and fen, over crag and dale, goes the wild flight; onward and upward, out over the fjords, out toward the great, great sea, sweeps the Northwind, till finally, almost exhausted, he sinks into the waters within reach of the shore on which gleam the turrets of the wonderful fairy castle wherein lives the prince.

It is this moment that Fru Hansen has chosen as the motive for this remarkable tapestry. Her fertile imagination has fairly reveled in this amazing whirlwind of quaint and bizarre detail, and this merry swirl of gleaming, laughing colors. Tired, the bold Northwind nears the goal, followed by his three brothers, the mystic birds of the sea. Completely lost in admiration of the dazzling magnificence of the fairy palace, sits the little maid on his back with her small bundle in her hand, her face wearing an expression of mingled astonishment and doubt. The composition is joyous in its exuberance of action and mischievously jolly in hidden surprises found in the details. This masterly piece of work is surrounded by a border in which one is fain to confess there is found all the known and unknown flowers on earth.

Of the three pieces exhibited I think "Semper Vadentes" unquestionably the most beautiful, inasmuch as it is free from all capricious eccentricities, delightful though they may be. Its dignified inscription in mediæval Latin, "Semper Vadentes—Semper Agentes * Semper * E. Natu. in Vitam. ad. Aeternum Domine" is most happily chosen, though even without it, it would be no less impressive. It is an earnestly eloquent pictorial sermon and Fru Hansen has here, through the medium of her art, expressed thoughts of deepest import. The four figures, each bearing a symbolic token, ever wandering and yearningly looking toward the great distant sea, eternity, form one of the most sympathetic notes in this beautiful symphony of color. Poetic in conception, perfect in technic and as a work of decorative art, Fru Hansen has in this piece achieved her greatest triumph. This tapestry was sold to Mr. Sadi Carnot, son of the late President of France.

From Paris I went to Christiania to gain a more intimate knowledge of Norway's development of the industrial arts. As a matter of course I visited Fru Hansen's studio and not only saw the enormous ancient loom but was shown the various processes of the preparing and dyeing of the wool. The loom, while unique in its way, is similar in some respects to the high-warp looms (*Tapisserie de haute lisse*), in which the warp-threads are vertical, as compared with the low-warp looms (*Tapisserie de basse lisse*), used in the Gobelins, in which the warp-threads are horizontal. Many of the crude old features have been changed or modified to suit the modern requirements.

In speaking of her work Fru Hansen said: "I invariably use living models for my figure compositions. Form, above all, is with me the means for the display of colors. The colors are like the sun in my art, consequently the form must be subordinate and arranged so that I obtain the color scheme I have decided upon. Without feeling or thought any art is worthless. An inharmonious blending of colors has the same unpleasant effect on me as a false measure in a musical composition."

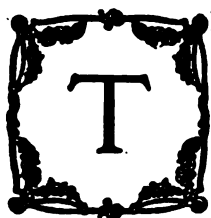
Fru Hansen has recently moved into her new home, "Bestumhus," a charming house of original architecture, perched on the crest of a cliff in the vicinity of Christiania. She has a predilection for dazzling white. The exterior of the house is white, and in her large specially designed studio, where the huge ancient loom occupies the entire length of the wall, everything is in white, relieved here and there by the brilliant colors of the rugs and the portieres. In this cozy, though rather isolated retreat, lives this remarkable woman to whom not only Norway but the art world at large is indebted for the masterly works her creative genius has produced.



THE AMERICAN WOMAN AS A HIGHER TYPE

BY

MRS. T. P. O'CONNOR



THE American woman and the English woman are the product of two exactly opposite conditions of civilization. In England, the being to be looked up to, the being for the woman to sacrifice herself to, is Man, and the root of the evil, and it is an evil both for man and woman, is deep. It comes very largely from the existing law of primogeniture, a law which makes the eldest son in England a creature of entirely fictitious value. He is the heir to a title, the heir to large estates, and a person of great importance from his birth. His nurses indulge him, his tutors favor him, his mother is more lenient with him than with the other children, and when he grows up, girls smile at him, and mothers angle for him.

There is always this idea of title, and of the superiority of the man who bears it — and of the superiority of man anyhow. By constant suppression and an always perfectly apparent air of superiority, Englishmen have managed to suppress very largely the Englishwoman; certainly they have succeeded in making her conventional. The ideal wife and mother is she who simply reiterates her husband's ideas, and has none whatever of her own. The fact is that Englishmen like a woman in one capacity, that of a wife and a sweetheart; they know nothing of women as friends, as companions, as intimates. Indeed, you will very rarely find the broadest-minded Englishman who will acknowledge that such a thing as a tender and intimate friendship can exist between a man and a woman unless there is, or has been, or will be, a warmer sentiment at the bottom of it. That feeling of absolute comfort which exists between an

American man and woman is something that is unknown in England. Here, for instance, is a paragraph from the *Saturday Review*:

The average man is still jealous of his helpmeet and partner. His ideal at heart is still the farm-yard cock, strutting about with all his worshipful hens. He is willing to find them nice tender little bits, but they must not be able to find them themselves.

When a young man of family and fine connections marries a rich girl, he considers it only right that her fortune should be exploited for his own ambition. When you see this gentleman with the rich wife, his manner is generally kindly but indifferent. He is the man; he has married the woman and given her a certain position by doing it. Therefore he is entitled to any and all sacrifices for his career. All London shouted with laughter at Mr. Gilbert's memorable line in "The Pirates from Penzance":

When the coster's finished stamping on his mother.

It only shows that even the coster has a contempt for woman. I doubt very much if anybody stamping on his mother would appeal to an American as humorous.

With men at such a premium, naturally if a woman does not marry in England she is considered more or less a failure; she must marry, indeed, to be considered. Marriage gives her social position, an opportunity of enjoying the society of other men. It gives her authority, it gives her freedom. If an English spinster, young or old, had a large fortune, a chaperone, a splendid house, and wanted to have a salon and to give dinners and lunches, she would find a difficulty in inducing the men to come. Each man who was invited and eligible, would turn it over in his mind as to whether she wanted to marry him or not, and if he did not want to marry her, he would not give her the

benefit of the doubt nor take the trouble to go to the house; knowing that marriage is the thing most to be desired in England.

American women are just the opposite of their English sisters. And Thomas Jefferson never did a wiser thing than when he put aside the law of primogeniture. In the eyes of any state in the union a girl is of the same importance as her eldest brother; if she gets no more, she certainly gets no less from her father's estate than he; and she can scarcely estimate the advantages of her freedom, for in freedom lies truth. From her earliest infancy she has an opportunity to know boys and men as they really are, just plain human beings, some of them good, some of them bad; some noble, some ignoble; some fine, some rough; but at any rate they are none of them mysteries, enveloped in the dreams of ignorance. There is nothing so healthy, so normal, so sane, as an intimate knowledge of each other by the two sexes.

The American likes not only the one woman, but women. He takes the trouble to understand their point of view, their lives and their occupations. He is interested in them, he finds them companionable and makes friends of them; and surely he must have studied them appreciatively and helped them in their development, or else the American woman would never have blossomed into the wonderful creature that she is to-day. The most admirable thing about her is her friendliness, her kindness and her affection for other women. She is generous in compliments, in thoughts, in little appreciations.

It was Ouida who wittily said, many years ago, that if Mr. Gladstone died and the weather was good in England, all conversation would cease. The conditions of America are so natural and simple that if a man or woman has any individuality at all, it is allowed to develop and to become unique and interesting. Individuality in England is considered rather plebeian, particularly in a woman; and any one who wishes to be reserved and well bred would do well to make an exhaustive study of an encyclopedia before entering English society. Your sub-conscious mind and your speaking mind must be *absolutely dissimilar*.

The American woman, who is all joyous activity and who is sure of herself and her own position, and can be just her own charming self — everybody being quite satisfied with that — does not realize her immense advantage over the women of other nations. Englishmen will all, if they are candid, say that American women are terribly spoiled by their men. What is the definition of "spoiled?" It means that American women appear to be frank and happy, and without guile; honest, fearless and courageous and sure of themselves, and sure of their own opinions.

The Englishman wants a woman to look up to him; the American wants a woman to look at him. The American is always ready to give a woman her chance if she is literary, or artistic, or scientific. He is willing to put out his hand to help her along her thorny path. The Englishman thinks she ought not to have any path except that of a home-bred, home-loving, cow-like animal.

Here is the opinion of an intelligent Englishwoman on other women:

The very fact of women (and women more particularly of the intellectual type that assembled at the Women Workers' Conference) asking the question, "Is there more honor among men than women?" strikes one at once as an admission that here also the men have the best of it. Indeed, Miss Soulsby confessed that she had not even an *arrière pensée* in the matter. With quite emphatic candor she stated that, as a rule, women are less honorable than men, and she formulated a formidable list of their defections from the standard of honor which she had gathered from her girl friends. Here are some of them: Women will give in wrong scores at golf; they will cheat at croquet and bridge; they will cry fault at tennis when they simply mean that they can not take the ball; they will take the benefit of the doubt when a man would not; they will hand on confidences; they will cheat at examinations; they will break promises; they will back out when they find they are not on the popular side; they will face both ways in conversation; they will read other people's letters; they will overhear conversations and read letters.

Surely there are no American women who would make such a wholesale attack upon their sisters. The American woman, with her quick perception, her lively intelligence, her opportunities of knowing and understanding something of human nature, and with the protection and the care that she receives from her men, is the most fortunate woman in existence. Sometimes, perhaps, she asks too much of

life, but she also gives a great deal. She is capable, well read, witty; she is gowned beautifully and wears her clothes with distinction, and her taste is an instinct.

I have seen women from the extreme West, who had scarcely seen a bit of bric-a-brac or a piece of old furniture in all their lives, come to England, and in two years their homes would have a century's air of cultivation and of knowledge. The taste of the American woman is one of the most remarkable things about her. I take, for example, a woman in Louisville, who has absolutely perfect taste. She always rejects the false and selects the true in everything. She is a beautiful judge of stuffs and of old china, of old silver or pottery; she understands pictures, tapestries and fine embroideries, and in her own dress and her own habits she is as dainty as a flower. Her discrimination of the good is in no way superior to that of very many American women, and, what is almost as valuable as taste, they have a certain *chic*, which is not at all like French *chic*, a little daring and sometimes even a little vulgar. In an American it is just a sort of pretty coquetry. You will see it in a girl of sixteen. A fresh little beauty will wear a pink sun-bonnet with a white muslin dress, and lo! the fashion is set for all girls of sixteen to wear pink sun-bonnets. It is not so much the sun-bonnet as the angle of the rosy headgear and the cunning air with which it is worn.

The American woman has clearly demonstrated what sureness and happiness, poise, charm and gracious gaiety of manner can do toward the making of a woman. Besides these things, she has the warmest and most loving and maternal heart in the world. The perfect understanding and the delightful intimacy between children and their parents in America is almost an unknown quantity in England.

Another side of the American woman is her virile grip of youth. Not in frivolous dress or manner; not in dyed hair or flirtations, but in mind, in constantly improving herself, and in mental cultivation certainly she defies time. But I pray the American woman not to lose sight of the fact that she owes her position, her freedom and even her nobility, to the self-sacrifice and the generosity of the Ameri-

can man, who, whatever his faults may be, or whatever his life may be, gives with both hands to his women.

Grant Allen, that brilliant writer, who had a perfect fund of information about all sorts of things, said, "Every American woman is by birth a duchess." And the American dukes? There aren't any. These ladies' husbands, fathers and brothers are business men working hard for the duchesses. That's why I say quite seriously the American woman is the only real aristocrat now living in America. The reason is not far to seek: they represent the only leisured class in America. They are better groomed, better got up and better mannered than their brothers. It is because the men are almost all immersed or absorbed in business, while the women are fine ladies who stay at home and read, and see, and interest themselves widely in numberless directions.

The consequence is that nowhere, as a rule, does the gulf between the sexes yawn so wide as in America. One can often observe it in the brothers and sisters of the same family. And it runs in the opposite direction in Europe. There, as a rule, the men are better educated, and more likely to have read and seen and thought widely, than the women.

The American man likes his own women best and he wants to marry at home and he generally does marry at home. It is said that Englishwomen are not greatly attracted by American men, and the quality of the article has something to do with it. American men are not usually attracted by Englishwomen, even if they have grace and beauty. They are lazy and dislike too much exertion, while the American is accustomed to the ease and comradeship of American women. With an English girl an American would have to do all the talking and all the thinking and all the courting, and make all the exertion of getting acquainted. A nice clean skin, well-dressed hair, and dumb, shy, appealing eyes are not enough to attract him. He has seen too many amusing, witty, original, fearless girls to bother himself for long over a shy and uncomfortable maiden, no matter how pretty she may be.

It is almost impossible for any foreigner thoroughly to understand another

nationality. Because American women do not wear their hearts on their sleeves and are pleasant and agreeable and charming they are often voted in England as heartless beings. It is only because the English do not understand American manners, and probably Americans do not understand the English. Very likely the Englishwoman would be as charming, as gay and as bright as the American woman if she was placed in exactly the same atmosphere, and her individuality was allowed to develop and her natural charm to assert itself, but like so much else in England she is mostly an artificial product, suppressed and snubbed and kept in her proper place by her inferior master, Man.

The thing that the American woman has to be most proud of is that she has made her mark upon this old and conservative civilization. Englishwomen have looked on in wonder at the comfortable intimacy, the agreeable friendship and

the helpfulness of one American woman to another, and they are beginning to copy American manners; they are beginning to be agreeable to each other.

I said not long ago to an Englishman who said he did not like the American accent, that he ought to become accustomed to it as quickly as possible, because the next house of peers would speak with an American accent. And, I added, the accent will be west of the Mississippi, as all American heiresses east of that mighty river have been married by impecunious foreigners. He begged my pardon and said he didn't understand the humor of my remark. I told him that there was hope for him in the future because there wasn't any humor in the remark; it was simply a statement of cold facts. And if there is ever a genuine understanding and a real *entente cordiale* between the two countries it will be due to that wonderful, that gracious, that daring product, the American woman.

SOME FAMOUS STREETS ABROAD

(Illustrated on pages 279 to 284)

BY

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Old World is undergoing as rapid transformation as the New in the leveling process that accompanies our modern era. Its cities, once so quaint and peculiar, with sharply defined features of their own, fleeting past centuries in many a quarter, in winding street or forbidding rampart, have been Haussmannized, to use a convenient phrase, and now bear largely a common stamp, a stereotyped appearance. If Americans who have never been abroad do not without delay cross the Atlantic, they will soon find no Europe in its current sense, for towering sky-scrapers, ser-

pentine subways, electric trams, apartment hotels, arc lights, with successive rows of residences on conventional lines, will meet their astonished gaze. London, Paris, Berlin, Brussels, Vienna, Budapest — these cities change in sections every decade; and if the process is long continued they will practically cease structurally to be the capitals which their names and traditions suggest.

Such changes, it is true, have always taken place. The cities abroad have never been stationary; their growth, despite periods of disaster or decline, has been continuous. If the fine dust that hermetically sealed Pompeii after the eruption destroyed that city, it no less preserved its characteristics for two thousand years, although turned to stone. The modern era is as inexorable in its destruction of what is old or antiquated; but it restores and rebuilds a thousandfold until

every few decades cities witness a new birth and development. Within the past few years in particular, this process seems to have been marvelously accelerated, with steady improvements in light, transportation, architecture, the increase in population, the readjustment of old streets and quarters. Demolition has been followed by reconstruction. The changes are almost as marked in smaller places, especially in Holland and Italy, where historic canals have been filled, whole districts reclaimed from the sea, and solid streets appear where once picturesque barges from the East Indies slowly moved, or the gondola shone in the moonlight of romance.

Amid the changing conditions that are so thoroughly obliterating ancient landmarks abroad, the representative cities can still point to certain famous streets which retain essentially their typical character, despite the lapse of time. In fact, the very names of these streets are suggested whenever you mention attractive features of such capitals. Who that has been to Berlin has failed on the first day of his arrival to visit Unter den Linden, or what newcomer to London in the season has not joined the crowd of gazers at the wealth and fashion of Rotten Row? Hamburg points proudly to its Jungfernstieg, as does St. Petersburg to its Nevski Prospect, Vienna to its Praterstrasse, Brussels to its Boulevard Ansapach, and Budapest to its Andrássystrasse. Venice has its magnificent Grand Canal, it is true, but perhaps its most distinctive street in the modern sense is close to the Rialto, with hurrying and gaily dressed throngs on the way to cross the bridge. And Paris, where a dozen streets and more can lay just claims to prominence — can she not show the incomparable Champs Elysées, Rue de Rivoli, and Avenue Bois de Boulogne, with kaleidoscopic changes day and night?

The center of Berlin's splendor and activity is formed by Unter den Linden, a broad, stately avenue planted with a fourfold row of linden and chestnut trees, stretching from the Brandenburg Gate to the old Royal Palace. One can walk leisurely from its beginning to end in about twenty minutes, crossing some of the most imposing thoroughfares in the German capital. At the one end in close

proximity are the Royal Palace, the Library, a stately Catholic church, the Opera House, the University, and the Arsenal, with numerous historical monuments within view. At the other end near the Brandenburg Gate, with its celebrated sculptured Victory, are palaces and magnificent residences with the Thiergarten, a noble great park, just beyond. On the Linden are some noted restaurants — a word that hardly expresses the character of a German *conditorei* with its newspapers and magazines from all over the world and its cosmopolitan clientèle. Along this street, too, are some superb hotels, while it remains the favorite promenade for all classes. Here wealth and poverty, the nursemaid and the soldier, the schoolgirl and Emperor William himself can be seen from day to day enjoying the sunshine.

It is the Jungfernstieg which is Hamburg's favorite street, and in some respects it is unsurpassed in beauty and attractiveness. It forms one of the arms of the inner Alster basin, a sheet of water surrounded on three sides by the Alter and Neuer Jungfernstieg and the Alsterdamm, all bustling thoroughfares. Yet the city's wealth and fashion center on the Alter Jungfernstieg with its inviting Pavilion and arcades facing the water. It is not to be wondered at that Heinrich Heine liked to spend hours at the Pavilion reading and thinking — the spot was not far from his uncle's commodious residence. On this avenue, with its promenade lined with trees, are found the finest hotels and homes. On a summer evening the scene is inspiring and gives an indefinable charm to Hamburg, whose atmosphere is supposed to be commercial and prosaic. Other more or less prominent streets, like the Zeil in Frankfort-on-the-Main, Maximilian Strasse in Munich, the Schweidnitzerstrasse in Breslau, bear no comparison to the Jungfernstieg. And Sackville Street, Dublin, or Prince's Street, Edinburgh, eminently reputable as they are, are wholly distanced by Hamburg's famous thoroughfare.

St. Petersburg, whose extent and magnificence are rarely recognized aright, has several notable streets, but the Nevski Prospect is the one best known. It radiates south of the Admiralty and along this spacious avenue are reared palaces of

the court nobility as well as residences of the wealthier classes. Russia's imperial city has many attractive features. Here are grouped one of the largest libraries in the world, and in some respects without a peer; an art gallery of peculiar value; an academy of science; a women's university, and naval and military technological schools. Here, too, are varied manufactures, from glass to embroideries, while at its port, Cronstadt, enter twenty thousand vessels yearly. Its Nevski Prospect, whose breadth and extent readily admit of military evolutions, is certainly not its least claim to interest.

Venice, formed of 120 islands, which are generally very close together, and crossed by nearly four hundred bridges, has some distinctive streets, of which the Grand Canal is probably the one best known. The Merceria is its most important business thoroughfare, being lined with shops, and opening on the Piazza San Marco. Yet in many respects the most picturesque scene can be viewed in the street near the Rialto bridge which spans the Grand Canal at its center and dates from 1588-91. What a motley crowd! How varied in feature and dress! Venders, laborers, children, men and women, all in bright-colored garb, with faces tanned into olive hue, and keen, observant eyes, while eager tongues and soft tones make the air musical, even if the street is paved and the gondolier is absent.

Some may prefer the Strand, Cheapside, or Regent Street as being London's most famous street, and each has undoubted claims to special mention. It is, however, on Rotten Row, the old Route de Roi or King's Drive, where the beauty, the fashion, the wealth of London can best be seen. It is merely a bridle-path, ninety feet in width, which extends from Hyde Park corner to Kensington Gate, along the south side of the Serpentine for nearly a mile and a half. It runs parallel with the driveway, from which a turf-covered promenade separates it. In extent it is disappointing to those who are accustomed to lengthier streets. Yet in its character and air of distinction it is unrivaled. On a bright sunny afternoon in the season the sight is bewildering as you join the crowd and watch the swift-dissolving panorama of London's fair women and distinguished men driving or

riding by. No scene in London is more typical or attractive.

Vienna has several famous streets, but although the Ring, fifty-five yards broad, which encircles the old city, has its charm with its public buildings and palaces in all directions, the Praterstrasse is perhaps the more characteristically Viennese, with its shops and busy atmosphere. It is emphatically the people's promenade. Budapest — a capital that has made rapid strides forward of recent years — has its Andrassystrasse with its superb proportions and handsome buildings. In Paris some prefer the Rue de Rivoli, with its two miles of shops, always gay and bustling. Others would mention the Avenue des Champs Elysées, certainly superb in outline and character. The Avenue Bois de Boulogne has its hosts of admirers, and there are those who rehearse the claims of the Boulevard des Italiens or St. Germain. It is a point difficult of decision; for the famous streets of Paris are too numerous for one to be singled out as the most famous of all.

In the excavation or rather uncovering of Pompeii, one of its most frequented streets has been brought to light. It is the Street of Fortune, paved with lava blocks and with high-stepping stones at the crossings. The roadway is deeply worn with ruts. The Pompeian streets uncovered are about fourteen to twenty feet wide. Houses, mere shells of stone, line the Street of Fortune. The visitor can peer within — he sees nothing but empty space, which leaves everything to the imagination.

The same phenomenon meets one in Rome on the old Appian Way, which leading from the city to the Campagna, is lined on each side with the bare shells of once famous tombs now merely the shadow of a name.

Of all the cities in the Old World Jerusalem can make the least claim, perhaps, to any famous streets; for within its gates there are no level roadways. Like the angels in the ladder of Jacob's dream, people in the Holy City are always ascending or descending, so constant are the inequalities of surface in the narrow and steep passages. The square outside the Jaffa gate shows much activity, and is generally thronged with a variegated crowd — tourists, pilgrims, beggars. David

Street, running east from the Jaffa gate to the Temple place, has a bustling appearance with its open shops and balconies, its venders, colporteurs, long-coated Orientals, and sedate European visitors. But as Jerusalem is a city of legend as well as of reality, and the past vigorously jostles with the present at all corners, one is prepared for strange traditions. Of these not the least notable is the Via Dolorosa, one of the world's really famous streets, even if legendary. The name is given to a narrow, zig-zag path along which, so legend tells, Jesus carried

the cross from the hall of judgment to Calvary. There are fourteen stations on the way, all marked by tablets, although their location varied in different centuries. So strong is the sentiment aroused by this street that even to-day no Jew dare walk along its stones save in peril of his life. Like the Bridge of Sighs at Venice, the Via Dolorosa has acquired a mystic significance of its own and has become the symbol of all roadways. As if our human life, when one thinks of its sorrows and burdens, its agonies and its incompleteness, were not a via dolorosa!

TROUBLE IN THE OLD KENTUCKY HOME

BY

FRANCIS PERRY ELLIOTT

That hall-mark of excellence, "Bred in Old Kentucky," applies not alone to beautiful women, whisky par excellence, and thoroughbred horses, but also to another luxury — tobacco. Along the border of the famed blue-grass region are some twenty-odd counties known as the "Black Patch." Their chief product is "dark" tobacco of a peculiar color and texture found nowhere else in the world. In this respect it is like the Turkish tobacco of Salonica, the Perique of a certain parish in Louisiana, the Latakia of Syria, and the Cuban grades from the districts of Vuelta Abajo, of Partidas, and Vuelta Arriba. This dark-tobacco district of Kentucky, overlapping into Tennessee, produces nearly all, if not all, the tobacco used in England and Italy.

was, down in old ntuck, when the long e circulating about e council fires ough a strange com- nd over the per- bed spirits of con- tending warriors. But it would seem that of late the breath of the divine afflatus is no longer potent as of old. The peaceful council fires have given place to fierce conflagrations of great tobacco warehouses, and the red-illuminated clouds of smoke from hundreds of thousands of pounds of the precious weed have become symbols of actual war.

Now-a-days, instead of picturesque red men squatting amicably for a primitive "smoker," we have cavalcades of pale-faced men, masked and disguised, trotting down the pike at midnight and investing

a town with military precision. At their advent, frightened citizens are shooed within doors, telephone and telegraph wires are cut to establish isolation, and, while the fire department is restrained by one contingent, another proceeds to fire the tobacco warehouses of the enemy. Usually dynamite and petroleum expedites the work of destruction.

Then the "Night Riders" disappear as mysteriously as they came, and, with their departure, terrified citizens rally to the burning buildings and do what they can to save the spread of the conflagration. But the warehouses or barns always have literally "gone up in smoke" by this time and in their trail often take the too contiguous houses, stores or mills of innocent citizens having no interest or connection whatever with tobacco growth or sale.

Sometimes the warehouses or barns to

which the torch is applied are those of the American Tobacco Company, or some of its alleged branches or affiliated companies; sometimes destruction is visited upon the plant beds or the stored tobacco of the "Independents." These are farmers who have persistently remained outside of the Association that is engaged in a peaceful warfare against the "Trust." Or again, they are weak brothers who, having engaged to pool their tobacco and sell only through the Association, are charged with having been tempted by the advance of prices and having released their stock to the buyers for the enemy. Or again, they are the "hill billys" - the Ishmaelites who have held aloof entirely from participation in the peaceful contest of the planters for the improvement of their industry; who have neither coöperated with nor contributed to the success of the movement. Without having borne any of the heat or burden of the day, they have come into prosperous times on the high wave of the improved market resulting from the struggle of their neighbors for better prices. And, alas! too often the application of the torch or the whip by the masked night rider is a convenient opportunity to gratify the personal, private grudge of years.

But, in the main, the night rider is mistakenly endeavoring to accomplish quickly by intimidation and violence the reforms that the Association has been gradually perfecting through organization, coöperation, law and order.

The summary methods resorted to have brought about a state of terrorism bordering on anarchy in certain portions of the tobacco district. In every case, so far, local constabulary of police have found themselves absurdly inadequate to contend with organized bodies of armed horsemen and their "generals." Governor Willson is being besieged for protection. At present writing, a Gatling gun crew is guarding the warehouse of the American Tobacco Company at Lexington, and militia are still on duty at Hopkinsville, Princeton and Russellville, where fortunes have already gone up in tobacco smoke. Others of the State Guard are deployed at points apprehensive of attack. Below Hopkinsville, ten miles over the Tennessee border, is Clarksville, the second largest tobacco market in the world and the home of vast storage warehouses of the American Tobacco Company.

The situation in Kentucky is very well summarized by Governor Willson in his message of January 8. He says:

Our tobacco market is nearly destroyed. Large customers are being taught that it is safer and better to buy elsewhere; large crops remain unsold; managers, who have been promised large prices for pooled crops above the market price, have seen the buyers driven from the field, and no one can tell when the end will come, but every one can see that the result, up to this time, is that our markets, not only for tobacco, but for other products, are paralyzed, and in many cases ruined; that in large districts the law has been wholly overthrown, and the poor people, who have no one to take care of them, are deprived of the protection of the people's laws, and have lost their liberty and are helpless; that the price of nearly every acre of good land in Kentucky has gone down; that thousands of people wish to move out of Kentucky, to stay where they hope that it is safer to live, and the very flower of our working population wishes to leave the state, as thousands have done before; that it has been necessary, in order to allay the fears of frightened people, even in a large city like Hopkinsville, to keep a company of militia on duty, at great expense and with great hardship on the young men who are taken from their ordinary business and work; that lawless and unprincipled men have been constantly ready to break out in several counties, unrestrained by law or public sentiment, and that the people of Kentucky are brought suddenly and

Courtesy of the New York World

AFTER AN ATTACK BY "NIGHT RIDERS"

The Police Office in the City Building at Hopkinsville,
Kentucky

his daughter or servant, he subjects his product to a revenue tax of six cents, and he must qualify as a "manufacturer." Inasmuch as six cents is just about the cost of production, the tax makes a profit prohibitive. Formerly the country storekeeper was one of the tobacco-grower's best customers, but since the institution

you will hear the story, again and again, of how a few years ago the price was forced down as low as three and one-half cents. Then a point was reached where the farmer could no longer employ laborers to work in his fields, and had to send his wife, his daughters and his little boys. It was then that the worm turned. The

Courtesy of the New York Herald

TANDY & FAIRLEIGH'S FACTORY AT HOPKINSVILLE, KENTUCKY, AFTER A NIGHT RIDERS' RAID

The ruins in the rear are those of the Acme Mills and Elevator Company, which had a daily capacity of 1,500 hogsheds of tobacco

of the tax this channel of trade is blocked. In fact it comes to this: to market his tobacco at all, the planter must sell to a qualified dealer in leaf tobacco, or to a manufacturer or an importer. This he may do without paying a tax. But his plaint is that the only such purchasers for his tobacco — the only ones on the spot offering to bid — are the agents or buyers for the American Tobacco Company and the other companies which it is charged are subsidiaries or affiliations thereof. These have divided out the counties into "districts" and the grower living in one district can not sell his crop to a buyer to whom another district is apportioned.

Down in the "Black Patch" they tell you how, by this ingenious system, the Trust has eliminated competitive bidders;

farmers got together and formed the Dark Tobacco District Planters' Protective Association. The name was portentous; but so was the problem which had to be grappled. Then came the pledging of their tobacco in a pool. It was to be stored in Association warehouses and controlled and marketed by the Association's officers. An enormous output of tobacco was thus withdrawn from the market.

The district buyer came and made his little bid. The planter sat under his own vine and fig tree and listened calmly; he blew fragrant aureoles of black patch tobacco smoke above the buyer's head and shook his own. There was nothing doing. The buyers compared notes and reluctantly raised the bid; the planter was still unmoved; he shrouded himself in an envelope of the peculiar dark-blue vapor

FIGHTING THE WHITE PLAGUE AMONG CATTLE

BY

DAVID ROBERTS

STATE VETERINARIAN OF WISCONSIN

Food agitation and adulteration has in recent years irresistibly drawn public attention to the dairy products of the country. Outside of the dairy products and grains, there is no source of food so important as the dairies of America. In the critical period of infancy, no food is so essential as milk, and yet no other is so fraught with danger to the life and health of the child, if not vigilantly guarded in production, transportation—and shall I say transformation—and consumption. Indeed, the principal safeguard should be established before the production of the milk, in the sense of its extraction from the udder of the cow. For adulteration, menacing as it is, is not so inimical as infection from diseased cows.

It is no part of my professional duty and no requirement in my work of preparing this article, to deal with adulterations, but rather to emphasize the importance of preventing disease, both in live stock and in human beings, by arousing milk producers and milk consumers—and who is not included in the latter?—to the realization of the danger of infection from diseased milk.

Tuberculosis is the most dreaded and dreadful disease in our country, both in live stock and mankind, and I am convinced that the eradication of the disease in the dairy animals of America will be an important aid to the organized effort now being put forth to stamp out the great "White Plague" in humankind. It has been both my desire and my effort to instruct dairymen and live-stock breeders in the nature, symptoms and danger of *tuberculosis in cattle*, and I gladly seize

this opportunity to extend a word to the general reading public on a subject so intimately connected with a most important item of their food supply.

From about 20,000,000 cows, there is produced in this country, in round numbers, 8,000,000,000 gallons of milk yearly; 1,500,000,000 pounds of butter and 300,000,000 pounds of cheese, valued in the aggregate at about \$700,000,000. Practically all the milk and butter are consumed in America, as well as ninety per cent of the cheese; so it is plain that the importance of safeguarding this great and universal food supply can not be overestimated.

The Nature of Bovine Tuberculosis

Tuberculosis, or consumption, in cattle, is an infectious and communicable disease characterized by the formation in the glands of the body of small bunches called tubercles, from which the disease derives its name. The germs of tuberculosis enter the body by way of the nostrils from the air, or by way of the mouth, in feed. As soon as these germs enter the body, they begin to multiply slowly but surely in the otherwise healthy animal until the entire system becomes affected.

In animals that are run down, in poor condition or affected by other diseases, the germs of tuberculosis find a hot-bed for rapid germination, and such animals soon become walking disseminators of the disease. Penned up or stabled with other animals, the infection soon spreads to all, and often almost an entire herd will be found to react to the tuberculin test and be condemned to slaughter, when the owner little suspected that there was anything seriously wrong with his herd. Therein lies the great danger to human-

kind; for a herd of cows may have the outward appearance of health and still be in an advanced stage of tuberculosis. The owner, under such circumstances, may unknowingly be putting on the market dangerously diseased milk.

Here is where the vigilance of the official veterinarian may and does accomplish an important service for the consuming public; for, by the application of the tuberculin test, the presence of the disease is detected, no matter what outward appearances may be.

In speaking for the State of Wisconsin, I believe I am speaking for all the other dairying states when I say that the laws for testing milch cows and dairy herds for tuberculosis should be most rigidly enforced by officials, and, in most cases, willingly acquiesced in by cattle owners, even to the destruction of entire herds, when necessary to meet the requirements of the law and public safety. I have in mind now one herd of eighty, fifty of which have been condemned; another herd of fifty-nine head, with thirty-nine condemned, one of thirty-six with thirty-five condemned, another of fifteen head with thirteen condemned, all furnishing milk to cities. This all occurred during the month of November in this state.

Educating the Public

In my own field, my official duty and my ambition are at one to be instrumental in educating those vitally and financially interested in cattle as to the nature of the disease and the means of its eradication. To this end, I have given tuberculosis demonstrations at the State Fair and at many county fairs of Wisconsin. For these demonstrations, I selected about a carload of cattle which had been subjected to the tuberculin test and condemned. From three to five of these animals were killed at each of the fairs in the presence of hundreds of people, interested and eager to learn about the disease and the means of combating it. Nearly all of these animals had the outward appearance of being in good condition, but upon post-mortem examination, diseased organs were found and removed, and the people were plainly shown what parts of the animals were affected.

I feel convinced that these demonstrations constitute the most impressive and

effective means of educating producers of dairy and meat products in the nature and danger of tuberculosis; for, being shown that the diseased tissue can actually be taken from healthy appearing cattle, they are the more willing and eager to use extreme means of prevention, and are more faithful and persistent in having the tests applied to their herds.

Tuberculosis may affect any part of the body or the organs therein, as the lungs, liver, heart, ovaries, bowels or udder. Cattle with tuberculosis of the lungs are in condition to spread the disease by the breath; those with tuberculosis of the bowels, by the droppings falling upon the grass where other cattle feed. This latter is the greatest source of infection. Cows affected with tuberculosis of the udder infect calves and pigs consuming their milk, and are a source of danger to persons using their product.

Detecting Tuberculosis in Cattle

The details of a test for tuberculosis are not easily set forth, and would not be of interest to the general reader; but he should know that all owners of suspicious herds are not only required to make these tests or have them made, but must show a record of the results, must give a history of the animals reacting and state from whom purchased, with the address of the owner, that the test may be carried to the herd of such former owner. Personally, I am particular to emphasize on every occasion the importance of preserving the highest sanitary conditions where herds are kept, and making examinations for other and more common diseases than tuberculosis. For my experience has convinced me that the most prolific soil for the propagation of tuberculosis germs is the animal that is already run down and out of condition by common preventable and curable ailments.

Disposing of Condemned Cattle

In Wisconsin, the owner of condemned cattle is given two options: He may retain the cattle in quarantine under such conditions as the Live Stock Sanitary Board may prescribe; or he may ship them under the auspices and general direction of the board to some abattoir designated by the board, for immediate slaughter. Under this provision, the owner shall re-

ceive the net proceeds of the sale of the slaughtered animals.

In case neither of these two options is accepted, and it is deemed necessary to slaughter the diseased animals, a written notice is served on the owner and on a justice of the peace in the county in which the cattle are, ordering them slaughtered, giving description of the animals and the name of the owner. The justice is then to summon the owner and also three disinterested citizens of the county, not residents of the immediate neighborhood in which such animals are owned, to appraise them. The appraisers shall be sworn by the justice to make a true appraisal without prejudice or favor, of the value of such animals as are found infected at the time of the appraisal, but the appraised value of any single animal shall not exceed \$50. Such animals are shipped at the expense of the state, under the direction and control of the board, to an abattoir designated by them, for immediate slaughter under United States government inspection. A report is submitted by a member of the Live Stock Sanitary Board stating that said cattle have been slaughtered.

The proceeds of the sale of the slaughtered animals, together with an account of all other disbursements made in connection with such shipments, are returned to the secretary of the board, and such net proceeds immediately transferred by the secretary to the Secretary of State, who in turn pays it to the State Treasurer, and he sends a check to the owner of the condemned cattle, to cover two-thirds the amount at which they were appraised. If such appraised animals are slaughtered on the premises, the slaughter shall be made under the direction of the local health officer, or the State Veterinarian or his assistant. The owner of the slaughtered animals shall receive no compensation for them until the Sanitary Board is satisfied that the infected premises have been disinfected in such manner as to prevent further spread of the disease.

How the State Is Protected

All cattle shipped into the State of Wisconsin must be accompanied by a certificate of inspection made by a qualified veterinarian. The certificate shall show *that at the time of inspection and within six months prior to shipment, said cattle*

had been subjected to the tuberculin test and were free from tuberculosis. Or such cattle may be shipped in quarantine to their first destination within the state, there to remain in quarantine under the direction of the local health officer until properly examined at the expense of the owner by an inspector duly appointed by the State Veterinarian or Live Stock Sanitary Board.

Similar measures for protection are provided and enforced in other states. Not only is each state endeavoring to accomplish the eradication of the disease by the stringent application of its own laws, and quarantining against other states, but there is a spirit of coöperation among the officers of the various states under whose administration the laws are enforced.

It is sometimes argued that it is not best to lay bare to public gaze conditions affecting the adulteration or contamination of food supplies, as it creates unwarranted apprehensions in the public mind. I regard this as a very narrow view of the matter. The common-sense of the American people is to be depended upon to see that the exposure of evils, whether natural or artificial, opens the way to a remedy, and I have shown the remedy for the evil of diseased milk.

At the risk of repetition, I want to emphasize the importance of general cleanliness, good ventilation, thorough sanitation and frequent disinfection of all quarters where cattle are kept. These precautions are scarcely less urgent as affecting the cow than in relation to ourselves, since we are so intimately dependent upon the cow for milk, cream, butter and cheese, one or more of which articles nearly every person consumes in less or greater quantity every day.

Since in this case, as in all others, "an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure," the attention of those appointed to combat disease in cattle should be primarily directed toward destroying the disease germ and removing the conditions of its propagation. Thorough sanitation and frequent intelligent disinfection of animals and quarters, and prompt attention to the more common and curable diseases, are the methods whereby tuberculosis in cattle may be more speedily eradicated.

cational test, or civic position. There were sundry reasons for this liberality, and among those avowed by Bismarck there was this, that he wanted to render the new-born empire popular with the masses. To the aristocratic portions of the population, to the ruling dynasties and their satellites, to the upper layers of German society, those hitherto accustomed to rule the land, he wanted to oppose as a counterpoise the lower classes, the huge laboring element. And by introducing this new factor he designed to perpetuate his own rule and that of the new-fledged emperor. In this, however, he had not foreseen the enormous rise of the Socialist party, and that party sent sturdily, election after election, larger delegations into the reichstag, until at present the Socialists make up nearly one-fourth of the total membership in that body.

Now, all this while the diet of Prussia remained unregenerate. This diet antedates the reichstag by a score of years. It was the outgrowth of the Prussian revolution of 1848, which was fought for a constitution and for legislative representation of the people. In some of its features this diet of Prussia is patterned after the British parliament. It has a *Herrenhaus*, or House of Lords, and a *Abgeordnetenhaus*, or House of Commons. The upper house is of minor importance, and its members are either hereditary, like the princes of the royal family, the heads of the wealthier and more ancient noble families, or are appointed by the Kaiser, as King of Prussia, such as rectors of universities, chief mayors of leading cities, and high court and royal household officials. The lower branch, like the House of Commons, is the more important, and nearly all distinctively Prussian laws of moment originate there. The 433 delegates to this body are elected by the nation, and receive a stipend of 15 marks, or about \$3.75, per day, also mileage and some other emoluments. But here is the rub. The suffrage on which this house is elected is not general, as in the case of the reichstag, but is plutocratic pure and simple. It was Bismarck himself who stigmatized this antiquated Prussian election law as "*the worst in existence.*"

This law works in this way: From the

total number of adult citizens in each of the 433 election districts are eliminated all those who do not pay a certain minimum of direct taxes. This removes from its operation nearly the whole laboring population and a considerable fraction of the poorer middle classes, altogether about seventy-five per cent, or three-fourths of the adult male population. The remainder of twenty-five per cent is divided into three classes of electors: those paying the highest amount of taxes in each election district, those paying the next highest amount, and those paying the lowest. Each class, no matter how small the number of those belonging to it, counts as an even third in making up the electoral vote, so that, for instance, three electors in the first class count for as much as the 225 electors in the second, or the 7,200 electors of the third.

As if this, however, were not sufficiently absurd, no general figures are given as to what shall constitute inclusion in each class, so that, in one district, where wealthy taxpayers abound, a tax receipt showing, say, 10,000 marks in taxes paid as a minimum will be necessary to secure the privilege of voting with the first class, while in the adjoining district, where not a single wealthy elector resides, 500 marks paid in taxes is ample to enjoy that boon.

These are extreme cases, of course, picked out for the purpose of illustration, but under the operation of this ridiculous law it has often happened that while a wealthy master tailor, let us say, has voted in the first class, his customer, a minister of state, though relatively poor, has had to vote in the third class, along with his own coachman and valet. One man in the first class of electors, the only really wealthy man in the town, and three in the second have together outvoted the thirty or forty thousand electors of the third class. And so on in all sorts and degrees of unreason.

During my many years of residence in Berlin I call to mind some startling cases of the kind mentioned. This, for example: In 1899 Prince Bülow was still a poor man. In the district where he had to vote he was only entitled to vote in the second class, together with several hundreds of other "second-class men." The first class was formed by five men only, chief among whom was a notorious usurer

liberal element would dominate. Above all, they dread the advent of the Socialists in that body. Thus it is that the Kaiser and the Prussian government allow themselves to be browbeaten, overreached, juggled with by the diet, rather than face the alternative of manhood suffrage for the elections to that body.

In some of the other states of Germany there are similar conditions, so far as their legislatures are concerned. In one state, namely, the Grandduchy of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, conditions are even worse. In Saxony, for reasons similar to those prevailing in Prussia, things are about on a par. In Baden they are slightly better. Generally speaking, there is more political freedom observable in South Germany to-day than in Prussia. The most liberally governed state is Württemberg, where *lèse majesté* trials are unknown, and where there is a complete absence of the "Yunker" element, which in Prussia dominates. Bavaria, too, is rather democratic, and her legislative bodies often indulge in an amount of plain speaking which would not be tolerated for a moment in either the Prussian diet or the reichstag.

However, the men who are at the head of the present movement for manhood suffrage for the diet are perfectly aware that a victory for their cause in Prussia will at once mean a victory for all the other states as well. Prussia, with two-thirds the population and more than two-thirds of the territory of the empire, plays the leading part in Germany. It is because of this that, principally under the leadership of Dr. Theodore Barth, one of Prussia's most enlightened and energetic political chieftains, this campaign for an extended franchise has been inaugurated in Prussia and so far confined to its soil. It is worth while saying a word about the inception of this movement and about the man at its head.

Doctor Barth, a man of independent fortune, for many years editor and proprietor of the political weekly, *Die Nation*, has been in active politics for thirty years past, a member of the reichstag and, just as often, filling also a seat on the extreme Liberal wing, in the diet. He is one of the few strong admirers and friends of America as well as England in German
political life *personal connection*

with the leading political figures in both countries is very extensive. Bryce, now British ambassador in Washington, is one of his intimates. Doctor Barth has made several extended visits to this country, the last one quite recently. He firmly believes in the wisdom and availability of parliamentary rule for Germany, in a system of government in the main modeled after that of Great Britain, although with some modifications needed because of the peculiar historical past of Germany. He believes, above all, in the direct responsibility of the cabinet officers to the people, or at least the political party triumphant for the hour, and in unrestricted manhood suffrage.

For many years Doctor Barth has been the leader of one of the factions into which the Liberal party, unfortunately, is split in his country. For several years past he has advocated the dogma that inasmuch as the Liberals are themselves too weak to achieve anything by their own strength, and inasmuch as in a great many things the Liberals have similar aims with the Socialists, the former should, on most occasions, fight shoulder to shoulder with the latter; that wherever a Liberal has the choice between a Reactionist, be he a Conservative, Centrist, or what not, and a Socialist, he should prefer the last-named.

His political horizon widened by repeated visits to England and the United States, and his political views broadened thereby, Doctor Barth a year ago suspended publication of *Die Nation* in order to devote himself entirely to the movement for a Liberalization of German political life, of which the present agitation for the diet manhood suffrage is the first and most indispensable step. He sought and obtained for the purpose the aid and comradeship of the Socialist party — without which, indeed, his labors would from the first have been wholly in vain — and of all those political leaders and their followers who were, on this question, in sympathy with him. He knows that his task is a gigantic one, more particularly as it involves the preliminary work of several years in order to accustom the disfranchised masses in Prussia to the idea that their success is feasible. This preliminary work was accomplished by him about a twelvemonth ago, and since then the prac-

and purifying it being accomplished, it is ready for the actual operations of making it into paper or boxboard, as the case may be. The paper, or "wet" machine, as it is called in the parlance of the mill, performs the most interesting operation of all. The base of the machine is a long wide tank in which the liquid fiber is poured, keeping it about two-thirds full. Five cylinders, two feet in diameter, and ten feet long, turn slowly with their lower half under the pulp. The cylinders being hollow, with their surface covered with fine wire cloth, a thin layer of the pulp adheres to the wire gauze along the entire length of the cylinders as they revolve, the water draining off through conductor pipes within. As the cylinders make the half of their revolution, the thin layer of pulp on the upper half is taken off by an endless belt of felt, on which the pulp clings while carried to pressure rolls which compress it into thinner endless sheets of cardboard.

The "drier," a machine sixty-six feet long and twelve feet wide, then takes the cardboard, and passes it up and over and under forty-one sizzling hot rolls of huge dimensions, which dry out the paper within a period of twenty minutes. As it emerges from this big machine, the peat-paper is complete, although it is put through a calender, which through the medium of heavy pressure and great heat, gives it the required finish. It then passes to the cutting machine directly at the end of the calender, which cuts the endless sheet of paper or boxboard into regular sheets of any size and shape, and delivers it in piles, stacked in regular and precise order, and counted. It is then tied in bundles, weighed and loaded in cars for shipment.

The finished product is superior to the cardboard made from straw or wood pulp in several ways. The passing of the peat-pulp over the hot rolls in the process of manufacture brings to the surface of the paper the natural oil of the peat, and makes the surface of the finished product waterproof and antiseptic. Besides this advantage, it is lacking in the odor which strawboard or wood-pulp paper possesses, and is extremely tough. The product is used principally for cartons by makers of breakfast foods, and for this purpose it is unexcelled. It is also valuable for

making boxes and bags for storing furs and woolen articles, as it is never attacked by moths.

On account of the increasing cost of print paper, this quality will doubtless soon be made from peat. All that is required beyond the present process is a bleaching to reduce the brown paper to the desired whiteness. When this is accomplished on a commercial scale, peat-to-paper plants will be established in many states of the Union.

A Home for Japanese Factory Girls

THOUSANDS of girls and women in Japan are employed in factories under the most disastrous conditions. They have no opportunities for education and the majority of them therefore can neither read nor write. They are housed in insanitary, crowded and immoral boarding places where there is every possible temptation to wrongdoing.

The government and the factory authorities have recognized these conditions and have been endeavoring to ameliorate them. But the most successful movement in this direction is the Factory Girls' Home at Matsuyama. It is under the control of Mr. Sydney L. Gulick and other missionaries of the American Board. The idea of the home, however, originated with a Japanese business man, Mr. Shinjiro Omoto, who is largely responsible for its success, and is manager of its boarding department.

The history of Mr. Omoto is a remarkable one. His great success in business led him into a licentious life that was carried to such an extreme as to cause his banishment from home. For years he had no intercourse with his father. While drinking in a saloon opposite a theater where the missionaries were holding services, he determined to try and break them up. But the preaching won his interest and he set himself to learn about Christianity. After some hard experiences he finally abandoned his evil ways and definitely entered on a Christian life. In order to gain a living he worked in a cotton-thread spinning factory twelve hours daily, alternately by day and night. He soon became impressed with the wretched conditions under which the girls were living. He was rapidly promoted from one position to another in the fac-

tory and finally was appointed "visitor" and employing agent. This compelled him to visit the boarding houses when the girls were absent. Although he refused to misrepresent the conditions to the girls or their parents or to treat with *sake* in the usual way, in order to gain new employees for the factory, he was so successful that he was given a more permanent position.

Meanwhile Mr. Omoto had inaugurated what he called a "Sympathy Society," a sort of night school. In Matsuyama when he entered the factory the ages of the girls employed ranged from seven to twenty. They worked in two shifts of twelve hours each and were compelled in addition to clean up daily. Their only holidays were two or three times a month. Mr. Omoto's first aim was to give them some recreation and for this he secured the use of the missionaries' preaching place near the factory. By degrees he persuaded the girls to add a little reading, writing and sewing to their play. These meetings were held three times a week after work hours. Membership in the society increased to seventy and soon every evening except Sunday was occupied, and classes were held in the mornings for the girls who worked on the night shifts.

But Mr. Omoto realized that a Christian home was what they really needed. The immorality and extravagance which was stimulated in the ill-ventilated, sunless, crowded houses in which the girls had to live, was ruining their lives. Mr. Gulick and Miss Parmelee, two of the missionaries, guaranteed sufficient *yen* to start the "home" in March, 1902, with twenty girls. The rules under which it was run — the forbidding of all drinking, irregular hours and irregular "friendships" and attendance on prayers morning and night made the place distasteful to some, but since March, 1907, the home has been filled to its utmost capacity and a large number of applicants have had to be refused admittance.

During these years land has been purchased and buildings erected for the home. The main building is two stories high and has seven sleeping rooms, besides a sewing-room, schoolroom, dining-room, kitchen and private rooms for Mr. Omoto and his wife. Necessity demands *now that other buildings be erected, for*

which \$6,000 will be needed. It is also hoped that an endowment of \$10,000 can be provided for the upkeep of the buildings and such regular expenses as can not be covered by the girls' payments for board, as teachers' salaries, taxes and insurance.

The factory authorities have come to recognize the value of this home, the girls who live in it being much more profitable to them than others, for they lose less time from sickness and work more intelligently and faithfully. They have not only asked Mr. Omoto to take all the girls into his home, which is of course impossible, but have asked him to go freely into all the boarding houses to give the girls moral instruction. This he does as far as time and strength allow. The city educational authorities asked him to open the night school to the poor of the district. For this a special license was required, the only one of its kind in the empire, as this was specifically declared to be a Christian school. But the lice was readily granted. Government inspectors have expressed themselves amazed at the work being done. Special reference to it has been made in government reports, so that it is being used as a model throughout the country. A cotton-thread spinning factory in Kyoto has recently erected a dormitory for its four hundred operatives at a cost of 40,000 *yen*. It is provided with separate school-rooms, dining and reception rooms and a Buddhist chapel in which services are held once a month.

During the five years of its existence over five hundred girls have been in the home at Matsuyama, and the gratitude expressed by both parents and girls has been touching. Many of the latter have been wholly transformed, and instead of being constantly in debt, they have learned to save money. Recently a weaving department has been started, where girls whose health does not permit of their working longer in the factory, can be employed. They work only by day and are required to desist from it on Sundays and to attend the regular church services, as well as the night school. This department offers even greater opportunity for evangelistic work, as the girls are entirely under the control of the missionaries and Mr. Omoto.

COLONIALISM

This is the second of the series of articles on the general colonial policy of the United States. Mr. Willis has been in the Philippines gathering material for his volume, and is among the leading critics of the policy of the Republican party. Subsequent papers in the series will present different aspects of the question.

CAN THE UNITED STATES ADMINISTER COLONIES ?

BY

HENRY PARKER WILLIS

THE ability of the United States to administer colonies is of much abstract interest, but the question raised in this form is not the practical phase of the colonial problem. It is of more importance to know whether, under given conditions, the United States will administer colonies well. Just here is the rock upon which much of our colonial discussion has split. There has been a failure to recognize that what we might do well, if we would give the time to it, we may not accomplish satisfactorily with other issues pressing for attention. Many cases can be cited, not only from the history of the United States but from that of other countries, where nations, like individuals, have shown ability to cope with a given type of problem but have failed to work it out consistently and satisfactorily either because they had too many other duties or because they lacked the higher seriousness which would have ensured persistent and conscientious application to details.

What the United States can do—in other words what it is likely to do—in administering colonies, must be judged in some measure by experience. But, since our experience has been short, the inferences to be drawn therefrom must be checked by an appeal to broader considerations. We have now had about a decade of active colonial oversight. In the

Philippines we have established a government of distinctly colonial type. In Porto Rico, an administration somewhat similar in character though carried on under different conditions has been developed. In Cuba, we have tried our hand at a policy of paternal control, and in Santo Domingo we are seeking to hold the purse while the people govern themselves. In Panama, we have built up a peculiar military-industrial state with a native government as a fringe. We have once more met in Alaska some of the problems which we earlier encountered in our dealings with the aborigines of the North American continent. In Hawaii, we have sought to create a territory of the familiar type but under unfamiliar surroundings.

From all this, some lessons stand out conspicuously, while there are others whose meaning is doubtful. That our experiments have not been successful is a statement still controverted but whose truth is confessed in private, if not in public, by those who are closest to the situation, even when it is alleged that there are good reasons for our failures and that they need not be expected to continue in the future.

The best example and most thorough test of what we can do with a pure colonial government has been furnished by the Philippines. Beginning there with a military rule, we advanced to a civil dictatorship backed by our armed forces. Upon this we are, most recently, endeavoring to graft powers of popular govern-

ment. It should be recognized that in most of what we have done in the Philippines there has been singularly little taint of personal or political self-seeking. Under the civil government, there has been a distinct effort to attain a standard of efficiency; and, although there have been numerous cases of speculation among subordinate officers, there is no evidence of corruption or irregularity as a characteristic of the administration itself. From the standpoint of the government at Washington there has been unexpectedly little effort to use Philippine appointments as pawns in the political game. This is partly a result of prosperous times which have given full employment to American citizens at home, but it is also largely due to a desire to place capable men in charge of responsible work.

In spite of good intentions and freedom from the more sordid motives, the Philippine experiment has been economically and industrially a failure. At present the industries and trade of the islands are in a suffering condition. Sugar, tobacco, and other staples can not be favorably sold abroad owing to hostile tariffs and the backward state of agriculture, coupled with the lack of agricultural implements of modern design. The buying power of the islands has also declined. True, there has been an expansion of exports due to the enlarged shipments of hemp, which enters free into most of the commercial countries of the world, including the United States, and of which the Philippines have a practical monopoly. There has also been a growth of imports, largely due to purchases for the army, the demands of soldiers and officers for American goods, and the shipments of machinery and supplies needed by the railroad constructors. Since the pay of the army comes from the United States, while the railroads are being built with American capital guaranteed by the United States Government, neither of these factors of the situation can be considered normal. There is on all hands agreement that insular trade is prostrated and that at present the prospects for improvement are limited. This has been due partly to the military severities incident to our conquest, but more to congressional refusal to provide the Philippines with a market in *place of that formerly furnished by Spain.*

There have been some internal improvements, more particularly within the past few years. The railroad mileage has been materially increased, and at least a moderate amount of work on the roads and harbors has been performed. A better currency system has been established and the lands of the religious orders have been purchased. These changes have been accomplished by the creation of a debt which now aggregates \$10,000,000 and by the imposition of taxes of unprecedented weight. The commission, headed by President Schurman of Cornell, which went to the islands at the request of President McKinley, reported the cost of government in a normal Spanish year at \$6,800,000 gold. For an average year the cost of our government, insular, provincial and municipal, as measured by taxes collected, is now about \$16,500,000 gold. This furnishes some test of the increase in burdens falling upon the native inhabitants, an increase somewhat offset perhaps by the abolition of local dues and exactions, but aggravated by the very great additions to the cost of living. Such additions have undoubtedly more than offset the material rise of wages which as usual followed the advent of American influence.

From the purely executive standpoint the results of insular administration have been disappointing. It has been frankly confessed by the ablest insular observers that we have erred by seeking to build up an elaborate and costly government. In establishing this government the model most usually followed has been that of the United States, a highly organized conventional system of administration, rather than the system prevailing in the more successful colonies of the Orient. Although there has been, as remarked before, serious efforts to get good men for the different bureau posts, this effort has been frequently unsuccessful, either because of a scarcity of available material, or in consequence of the inadequacy of the inducements offered by Philippine service. Our administrators have had to learn by experience and in so doing they have blundered badly. Moreover with the incessant change that goes on in the service and our lack of provision for continuity of policy, there is no reason to believe that these blunders will all be

eliminated in the future, even though they may be somewhat reduced in number.

Socially and educationally, the results of American rule in the Philippines are still doubtful. There is much ground for the belief that we have been going too fast with our insular experiment and that the attitude of the natives both toward ourselves and toward their own problems has not improved. It will take some time and more experience with the legislative assembly to speak positively on this point. But the outlook is certainly not very encouraging. The drift of our system of education seems to have been away from that manual labor which must necessarily constitute the employment of a majority of the inhabitants during life. Americans in the Philippines have presented to the native mind some of the less lovely national traits, and these have too often been copied to the exclusion of our better characteristics.

It is not true that we have fared much better elsewhere than in the Philippines. Porto Rico has been given access to our markets and has in some ways been economically better treated than our Oriental possessions. But there has been the same dissatisfaction with American administration and the same neglect of local needs and desires. The same errors of judgment have been committed in Porto Rico which have been signalized in the Philippines. The social and political unrest among the natives of the two colonies is parallel. In Cuba during our short stay we had no opportunity for a thorough test, while much of what was there done was in charge of the officers of the army. Yet even in our work for Cuba there may be traced the tendencies which we exhibited in the East. Much the same may be said of Hawaii. Our other colonial domains have had their special problems, but in all there has been a prevalence of similar defects, varying from place to place, yet indicating, though by different symptoms, an underlying condition of identical character.

By what standard do critics of government seek to judge colonial administration? Some understand by a good colonial government one that is better than that which would have been established by the governed peoples for themselves. Others seem to consider colonial adminis-

trations efficient only when they approximate in character to the home government of the dominant country.

It should be borne in mind that no absolute standard on this point is possible. Ideals of government differ widely. Yet there are working standards which may be applied to every administration. Colonial governments can not be judged by comparison with the native administrations which preceded them or might take their place were they abolished. If they are not vastly better than these, there can of course be no excuse for them save that of force *majeure*. One available test is found in the question how far a dominant nation has succeeded in assuring to the governed people political and social stability, accompanied by that degree of equity and economy in the administration of law, and that measure of economic opportunity which has been secured by its own citizens. There may be argument as to whether a cruder, less just and less honest government of native origin would not be better in the long run for the inhabitants, if it implied an opportunity to learn and to advance through experience. But this is rather an element in the problem whether colonialism should exist at all, and as such is outside the scope of the present paper. Granting that a colonial system should exist, the test must be flexible in character as already noted.

Why has the United States thus far failed to produce a successful colonial administration? May improvement be expected in future? In this, as in all such cases, we must first ask: Is the form of the national government, its traditions and its principles such as to lay the foundation for good colonial administration? With the United States, the answer must be an unqualified negative.

Our government is one of divided powers. Public opinion is the force which compels the proper performance of its functions, and public opinion depends upon information of a detailed and accurate character. Domestic problems have been numerous and confusing. The citizen who understands and intelligently registers his verdict upon one-half of those now pending is rare indeed. To expect from the average man careful study and accurate knowledge of an alien people many thousand miles away is un-

reasonable. The result has been that Congress has never acted in colonial matters from a disinterested standpoint. When tariff questions have been presented to it, it has heard only the pleas of the American interests involved in the trade. The natives themselves have had no advocates except administrators who have usually been unable to enlist a sufficient opinion on their side to enforce demands which they knew to be absolutely indispensable.

We have, in short, been unwilling to make such a breach with our traditions of government as would be involved in a purely administrative control of our colonies, while there has been lacking a sufficient outlay of social energy to compel coöperation between the legislative and executive branches of the government. Thus while, upon occasion, it has been practicable to secure needed legislation, as in the case of our trade relations with Porto Rico, we have usually found it impossible to take any action. Inability to meet the recurring needs involved by the necessarily more or less absolute form of colonial government inheres in the nature of American institutions, as has been pointedly observed by Apolinario Mabini, probably the most acute student of politics yet produced by the Philippines.

A second important question in every colonial experiment bears upon the relationship between the people of the ruling race and those over whom they have assumed control. Are conditions in our possessions such as to assure a good understanding and a cordial relationship?

No one who has observed the conduct of Americans toward native races can give a favorable answer to this question. While strenuously protesting our democratic spirit, we have shown ourselves to be permeated with race prejudice of an extreme type. This antipathy, to some extent inherent, has been greatly aggravated in many sections of the United States by constant friction with subject races. It is most marked among the class of Americans who are likely to go in greatest number to outlying territories. Exhibited there, it has formed a basis for ill-feeling and lack of coöperation which has built up a barrier between our representatives and their subjects. Race feeling has been little, if at all, alleviated by the rather ostentatious effort of some officials to make

common cause with the natives. The effort has been too conspicuous and too infrequent to be successful, and as a result our relation to the natives of the old Spanish colonial empire contrasts unfavorably with that established by the former rulers, notwithstanding the misconduct and bad administration of the latter. It is doubtful how far we can in the near future eliminate this racial factor which now impedes our progress in so material a degree.

The third vital question relating to the efficiency of our future colonial government is this: Can we regularly secure competent men for colonial positions? That such men could be supplied is, of course, obvious. We could train colonial administrators as we train engineers. The universities would be willing and capable in aiding such work. But the fact remains that at present the opportunities for such training are scanty. Particularly is this true as regards education in languages; and corresponding defects may be noted as regards other kinds of education which are requisite to capable colonial administrators.

It can not be expected either that such defects will be remedied or that men will consent to devote the time which is necessary to fit themselves for good work unless a definite career is opened to them. We have come closer to offering such a career within the past few years than ever before, yet the accomplishment in this direction is small. Even now there is reasonable ground for uncertainty concerning the duration of our tenure of the Philippines on the present basis. Men will not specialize in work which gives no assurance of continuity. Moreover, the opportunities for competent men in the United States are far greater than those which we have offered in the Philippines, or in our other colonies. Although average salaries there range higher than for corresponding work at home, and though some salaries are extremely liberal when compared with those of analogous places in the United States, the returns secured over a series of years, allowing for sickness, isolation, and sacrifice of other opportunities, are insufficient to attract the best class of trained men. Even when earnest search has been made for recruits of the right type to fill expert positions in the colonies, the Bureau of Insular Affairs has frequently had

to wait for months before it could successfully fill places as it desired.

It is thus open to serious doubt whether in any near future we shall be able to secure a regular supply of men thoroughly equipped for colonial service. It would be of great assistance to have the colonial question definitely settled, since this will clear the prospects before men who contemplate entering the service. Reduction of the force of employees, and limitation of their numbers, as is practiced by England and as was recommended by the Schurman Commission, will also be of advantage, since this will make it necessary to fill only the higher and better salaried posts, leaving the others to the natives. But even with these changes introduced, the lack of continuity in our national policy and the division of authority between different branches of the government must permanently place

our colonial service upon a more or less unsatisfactory basis.

If the people of the United States would demand it, and would devote themselves to a study of colonialism, as at great crises in our history they have studied other equally perplexing questions, we might hope for successful and efficient colonial administration. With conditions as they are, with innumerable problems calling for attention at home, with the colonial service doubtful in its prospects and more or less limited in its rewards as contrasted with domestic opportunities, it is not likely that the American public will consider the issue of sufficient importance to warrant a correct solution. Without the aid of public opinion, our higher officials, however conscientious, can do little.

Things being what they are, the United States can not — that is to say, will not — administer its colonies successfully.

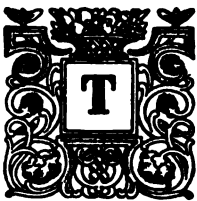
HEALING THE BODY THROUGH THE SOUL

Everywhere there is a new and remarkable interest in the psychical treatment of disease. This appears in many forms. In several cities churches are taking up the work of spiritual and moral healing. Notable instances are Emmanuel Church, Boston, and St. Paul's (Reformed Episcopal) in Chicago. At our request, Bishop Fallows of the latter has given us an account not only of his work, but of the movement in general, and George S. Cook distinguishes "Religious Therapeutics" from Christian Science. The two articles serve to supplement each other and are admirable illustrations of non-controversial discussions of a vital matter.

RELIGIOUS THERAPEUTICS

BY

RT. REV. SAMUEL FALLOWS



THE Emmanuel movement, which aims to ally the clergyman and the physician in a beneficent effort to relieve and correct nervous disorders, has aroused widespread interest. Although the movement was begun only about fifteen months ago in Emmanuel Church, Boston, several other churches

have already started work on the same lines with the sanction of a number of eminent ecclesiastics and physicians. The effort to bring to bear mental, psychical and spiritual influences directly upon persons suffering from various ailments is by no means new. The scientific psychotherapeutics of to-day was crudely foreshadowed by some of the usages of ancient Egypt. Savages, semi-civilized and civilized nations, in one form or another, have

given characteristic expression to the principle behind this form of treatment.

As for the healing power of religious faith, which is an important factor in what we have called, for the sake of convenience, "Religious Therapeutics," founded on the principles of a Christian psychology, it was, as we well know, applied by the Apostles in the first century, in their wonderful works. Faith as a cure for disease was recognized by the centuries succeeding, and was employed in the fourth century by Athanasius and Augustine; in the fifth by Hilary and Jerome; in the sixth by Gregory the Great, and also by Augustine of Canterbury and by Cuthbert and Bede. It is said to have been used in the sixteenth century by Bishop Parkhurst.

Thus in the Greek, the Latin and the Anglican Churches the healing power of the ministry has been recognized. So also has it been in the non-episcopal Churches. Luther declared that he healed by the power of prayer. Cotton Mather in his *Magnalia* states that a hundred years preceding his time, the physicians of kings in the Church of England were also their confessors. He also refers to the Rev. Dr. Chauncey, the second President of Yale College, and to his two sons in the ministry in the dissenting ranks, who united the physician and clergyman in their sacred calling. Wonders of healing and deliverances from difficulties and dangers are recorded in the lives of the Scots worthies. Dr. Bushnell, the calm, hard-headed thinker of New England, boldly challenges the Christian Church to come forward and show the warrant for abdicating its function of ministering to diseased souls given it by Christ himself. The indisputable testimony of orthodox missionaries to heathen countries shows that the marvelous works of the first apostolic century have been witnessed by them.

One of the positive injunctions given to every Episcopal Bishop of the Protestant Churches: Anglican, Protestant Episcopal, Reformed Episcopal, Methodist Episcopal and other allied bodies is "Heal the sick."

The differentiation of work naturally arising from the advance of science and the complex features of modern civilization, divided the function of the clergyman and the physician. The specific work of

healing the sick was handed over in general to the physician by the Church, and it has since been tacitly assumed that the Divine command to the ministry to do this work had been fulfilled when it had been thus relegated. But the nineteenth and twentieth centuries have witnessed an inrush of what are termed "functional disorders of the nervous system," never known before in the history of the race. We are living in an age preëminent for nervous ailments. These are partly mental and spiritual, and often only secondarily physical. An eminent neurologist told me that over seventy-five per cent of all the disorders specially afflicting the American people were of this type. He further stated that the physicians designated as neurologists could not take care of one-tenth of one per cent of these cases.

During an extended period of active teaching and thinking along psychological and psycho-therapeutic lines, the conviction has been borne in upon me that physicians and clergymen might coöperate in giving relief to the nervous sufferers. But pressure of work seemed to make the personal experiment difficult for me to undertake in church life. It was with a very vital interest, therefore, that I followed the effort of the Rev. Elwood Worcester, D.D., and the Rev. Samuel McComb, D.D., rectors of Emmanuel Church, Boston, to join the physician with his knowledge of scientific medicine, and the clergyman with his knowledge of the mental and spiritual states of his charges, in checking the rising tide of nervous disorders.

Realizing that many of the people who came to me for advice required for the relief of their difficulties the spiritual uplifting and education which this movement affords, I decided recently to start the work in my own church. The almost overwhelming response justified the feeling that such work was greatly needed in our own community, while hundreds of letters coming from every section of the country are evidence of the need of this work in many other communities. Some of the ablest neurologists of Boston and the vicinity have been associated with the eastern work. Functional and nervous disorders only have been specifically treated, and these have been accompanied with a physician's diagnosis. Organic

troubles have been relegated to a physician's immediate care. Nearly one thousand persons, since the beginning of the movement, have received manifest help or have been cured. In our Chicago work, we also have acted with the advice of some of our leading neurologists.

The fundamental principles of healing which are to be found in purely mental treatment, in the so-called New Thought, which is but a restatement of the Old Thought, or in Christian Science, are all contained within the Christian religion. It is the aim of this movement to apply actively once more these principles which should never have fallen into disuse, and to eliminate the errors that may have been gathered about them.

Dr. Worcester, in a recent sermon in Philadelphia, made the statement that Christian Science has gained in proportion a greater number of members in the past twenty years than has the Episcopal Church in three hundred. The progress of that cult has been due to two causes, the neglect of psycho-therapeutics on the part of physicians, as an eminent member of the medical profession pointed out, and the equal neglect of religious therapeutics on the part of the clergyman.

The adherents of Christian Science have nearly all gone out of various churches, because they thought they had found something that these existing church organizations could not or would not give them. The very existence of that body of followers of Mrs. Eddy is a ringing call to the Church to reaffirm, without a single note of wavering, that it has everything of healing possessed by them and the infinite fullness of Christian truth in addition.

Religious therapeutics, based on psychological Christian principles, is differentiated from Christian Science in many particulars.

First, we recognize, according to common experience and the inspired teachings of the Bible, the psychology of the New Testament that man possesses a mind and a body.

Second, we affirm most emphatically the value of anatomy, physiology, biology, bacteriology, histology and the like in the progress of the race.

Third, we maintain that there is a fundamental distinction between functional

and organic diseases, and while mind or thought may have originated both classes of ailments, the one may yield directly to psychic or spiritual influence, and the other indirectly through surgical or medicinal means.

Fourth, we assert the absolute necessity for the work of the physician, and give full value to the splendid efforts of the medical profession in furthering the health and welfare of the race. By making known God's laws of sanitation and hygiene, only one of the benefits they have conferred, they have not only prevented the scourges which once swept off millions of people in a single decade, but they have saved the lives of millions since.

Fifth, waiving all the theological and doctrinal differences which separate Christian Science so widely from the churches of Christendom, we believe in the power of faith in the historic Christ, and in personal and intercessory prayer to an ever-living and ever-loving personal God. We believe in using the best scientific medical knowledge and skill of the day, which we feel is as much God given as any psychical or spiritual method of relieving disease. Since we do not claim in any way the omniscience and omnipotence of the Great Physician, Jesus Christ, we ask our patients to come with a diagnosis as accurate as the skill of the physician can make it.

The aim of religious therapeutics is to bring health and happiness to the afflicted, and more efficiency to those who are well. It strives to drive out fears, various forms of depression, worry, want of confidence and the like from the mind and heart. It magnifies the love and tenderness and sympathy of God. It carries forward the benign work of the neurologist along the lines of reëducation and right living, according to the individual needs of each patient.

A few typical cases from the experience of Drs. Worcester and McComb, with some of my own, may be given. A woman came to Emmanuel Church suffering from nervous exhaustion, who was unable to do anything for herself. Dr. Worcester said to her: "Close your eyes and simply concentrate your thought on God's presence and power and the peace which he can put into your heart. If you will give up everything, cease to think your own thoughts and resign yourself to God, fixing your

mind on his infinite power and calm and peace, you yourself will gain that peace." After two months of this self-treatment she was entirely restored.

A poor old lady came to him and said that she had suffered from headache fifty-five years. It was the perpetuation in her memory of an old pain, the cause of which had long since passed away. He said to her: "If you will be perfectly quiet, resigning yourself absolutely to absence of thought about yourself, in ten minutes your headache will be gone and it will not return." She did so and the headache did not return.

With a diagnosis from one of our neurologists, a young man came to me at St. Paul's Church, who was on the verge of insanity, because he believed that on account of very early indiscretions, God would not forgive him. That fixed idea was in a short time driven from his mind by the repeated assurances of God's unfailing love to him through Jesus Christ. That divine suggestion became his auto-suggestion and saved him. Another came who had been strongly tempted to commit suicide because he believed there was no salvation for him. Persuasion, human and divine suggestion, sent him away joyously with a determination to live.

A most estimable gray-headed wife and mother came with a similar dominant impression which had depressed her for years. After several interviews a bright hope began to come into her heart, and a new light of gladness into her eyes. It may take a little longer time yet to completely drive out her fear, but a more wholesome habit of thought has been started.

An elderly man came suffering from a form of melancholia, who said he must

go to the hospital, for he had no power of mind or body to do anything. The following evening found him at the meeting and testifying that he had gone to work instead of to the hospital.

Another elderly man came with his sister and daughter. He had made a disposition of all his effects because he was going to die immediately. He went away with a smile upon his face, and with the conviction that he had many years yet before him on the earth. His relatives came immediately into the vestry and taking me by the hand, thanked me warmly, saying that they had not seen him smile for weeks before.

A wise discrimination, based on a careful diagnosis and close questioning, must of course be used in offering advice. For one zealous woman who had grown intensely emotional over her religious life, I prescribed, as a Christian duty, a temporary cessation of church activities, and a humdrum occupation until she could control her emotions and do her church work normally.

One engaged in this movement must remember also, that while "the nervous patient is on the road to recovery as soon as he has the conviction that he is going to be cured," as the eminent Dr. DeBois puts it, sometimes there must be an extended period of patient reëducation before the patient is cured, which happens as Dr. DuBois concludes, "on the day when he believes himself to be cured."

One of the visitors termed the parlors and vestry of St. Paul's Church, "The clearing house for sorrow." It is a very just statement of the fact. Numbers of people have come with burdens on their souls, who have gone away lightened of their load and with songs on their lips.



SOME DIFFERENCES BETWEEN CHRISTIAN SCIENCE AND CHRISTIAN PSYCHOLOGY

BY

GEORGE SHAW COOK

CHRISTIAN SCIENCE COMMITTEE ON PUBLICATION FOR ILLINOIS

HAVE been invited to state the difference between Christian Science and what has been termed Christian psychology. It would not be possible within the limits of a short magazine article to discuss all the points of divergence, but I will refer briefly to some of the differences between the Christ healing as applied in Christian Science and the various phases of mental therapeutics based upon the supposed power of the human mind.

The editor has been kind enough to explain that this article is not controversial, and therefore the reader need hardly be assured by me that what I am about to say must not be considered as a disparagement of the efforts of the gentleman who has described his work in this issue. Christian Scientists have too long been subjected to the sometimes unkindly criticism of those who do not agree with them to be intolerant of the views of others. They respect the motives of all who are earnestly engaged in the endeavor to alleviate human suffering even though they may not be able to endorse their methods.

Christian psychology is interesting to Christian Scientists chiefly for the reason that its advocacy by clergymen seems to indicate that the older churches are awakening to the necessity of ministering to the bodily as well as the spiritual needs of mankind. For many years since Mrs. Eddy declared the healing of sickness by spiritual means to be an indispensable feature of true Christianity, the contention of some clergymen has been that the time for such healing had passed. They

have said that it was right for Jesus and the early Christians to have healed by the power of Spirit, but that it would not be right for any one in this age except doctors of medicine to attempt the cure of disease. Apparently there has recently been an awakening to the fact that ministers of the gospel of Christ have either been neglecting a duty or overlooking an opportunity. The only cause for regret in this connection seems to be that the clergymen who advocate Christian psychology have not adopted the pure spiritual method of Christ Jesus, but have been willing to accept as a satisfactory substitute therefor a mode of mental suggestion or mesmerism.

To link the name psychology, which at once suggests the thought of mesmerism, with the name Christian is to imply if not declare that Christ Jesus was a mesmerist. Indeed, the attempt to combine the radically opposed thoughts suggested by the term Christian psychology would seem to present great moral as well as intellectual difficulty. The word Christian is naturally and properly associated with that which pertains to God, Spirit, divine Mind, as revealed and exemplified in the words and works of Christ Jesus. The word psychology is quite as naturally associated with the phenomena of the human, material mind. The combination therefore would appear to be logically impossible.

A primary definition of science is: "Knowledge; comprehension or understanding of facts or principles." Nothing more is claimed for Christian Science than that it is the knowledge, understanding, or comprehension of facts concerning the principle of Being, God, and the

application of his law to the destruction of evil in the manner employed by Jesus the Christ.

To be a Christian one must not only "believe on the Lord Jesus Christ," but must follow the Christ way of salvation from the ills to which humanity is heir. The question then arises, what is the Christ way? What method did Jesus employ in healing sickness and destroying sin?

It will not be seriously contended, I think, that Jesus used drugs in healing or that he depended in any way upon matter to facilitate his cures. There would be few who would claim that Jesus cooperated with doctors of medicine or that he required medical diagnoses of the diseases he cured. The gospel record which Christians accept as authority shows that Jesus healed "all manner of disease," reformed the sinner, and raised the dead by the power of God, divine Spirit, alone. If this spiritual method was God's way of healing in the time of Jesus, it must be His way now, for God is unchanging. If, on the other hand, the use of drugs is God's way of healing, why did not Christ Jesus use them? If the combined use of prayer and medicine is God's way, why did not Jesus combine them in his practice? It should be obvious that if medicine of itself is able to heal, prayer is not a necessary adjunct of the healing art, and if prayer is efficacious, medicine is not needed. James said, "the prayer of faith shall save the sick," not the prayer of faith supplemented by drugging.

Christian Science shows that one phase of error will not destroy another phase of error. It shows that the human mind can not destroy the evil conditions which it creates. Nothing but Truth can destroy error, for the same reason that nothing but light can destroy darkness. One form of mortal belief may take the place of another form, and temporary benefit may seem to result from this change, but nothing can completely eradicate human error and the effect thereof except absolute understanding of divine Truth. Christian Science teaches that all disease is due to some phase of mortal belief. It shows that not only mental but bodily sickness is directly or indirectly caused by some erroneous condition of thought, such as fear, sin, worry, hatred, envy, lust, or by some

generally accepted belief of the human mind claiming to operate as law. It shows that the scientific and permanent cure of disease must therefore come from an opposite source, from the Mind which is divine, the eternal, universal, omnipotent Mind to which Paul referred when he said, "Let that mind be in you which was also in Christ Jesus."

Jesus said of his works, "I can of mine own self do nothing. . . . The Father that dwelleth in me, He doeth the works." To his followers he said, "The works that I do shall ye do also and greater works." Christian Scientists believe that as followers of Christ Jesus they have a right to take him at his word. They believe that the healing which he did was lawful and was done according to an understood principle. They believe that this principle is God, divine Mind. They believe that divine Mind is available to man now just as it was in the time of Jesus. They believe that God and his eternal Christ should be entirely adequate to save under all circumstances and conditions.

Christian Scientists are, however, sensible of the fact that they have only begun to understand and apply the Christ method of healing and do not pretend that they never fail in its application, yet they do know that Christian Science has proved efficacious in the healing of thousands upon thousands of cases of acute and chronic disease, mental and physical, functional and organic. This is not mere assertion. It is demonstrable fact and should silence the claim so often made that Christian Science is good only for nervousness and hysteria, a claim which is made the basis for the statement that the cures wrought by Christian Science can all be explained as resulting from blind faith, will power, or mental suggestion. Experience has shown that the healing of disease through Christian Science treatment always involves an immediate or gradual improvement in the moral character of the individual. This may not of course be truly said of any material system. Mental suggestion could be and frequently is used for evil purposes. Christian Science can be successfully employed for good only.

Christian Scientists do not, as some suppose, declare to their patients that evil and matter are unreal and then leave

them with that declaration. They agree with the inquirer that matter and evil seem to be perfectly real to the false human sense, but show him how to prove their actual unreality by helping him to comprehend the infinity of Good, Spirit, and its manifestation. Knowing the difficulties which have obstructed the way of their own progress Godward, students of Christian Science realize that only by degrees will mankind acknowledge the demonstrable truth of the statement made by Mrs. Eddy on page 468 of "Science and Health with Key to the Scriptures," "There is no life, truth, intelligence, nor substance in matter. All is infinite Mind and its infinite manifestation, for God is All-in-all." This scientific statement was just as true when Mrs. Eddy was the

only person on earth who understood it as it is to-day when it is coming to be more generally accepted. The practical application of this statement and other teachings of Mrs. Eddy has stricken the cruel fetters of disease and sin from more than a million of earth's weary pilgrims who give God the glory for their freedom while acknowledging their gratitude to his messenger.

Even a casual reader of the Christian Science text-book should be able to discover that it is a convincing appeal for a return to absolute monotheism and a mighty protest against polytheism, pantheism, and the prevalent form of dualism which is the outgrowth of the vain attempt, as Mrs. Eddy expresses it, "to hold Spirit in the grasp of matter."

THE NEXT WAVE OF PROSPERITY

BY

HERBERT B. MULFORD

the height of the recent financial panic, the president of one of the largest and most successful corporations operating on the prosperous Pacific Coast happened to be in New York. He viewed complacently the anxious crowds waiting at the doors of the ill-fated banks and trust companies. The market for securities seemed to be a bottomless pit, but the western man smugly remarked, as he boarded a train for home, "A Wall Street panic can't hurt the West." Relating his experiences later, he said, with a surprised air, "Do you know, before I got half-way home — at Chicago — I received a wire asking for advice; our banks had gone on a clearing-house scrip basis and business on the coast was almost as hard hit as anywhere in the country."

Which simply goes to show once more that the warp of the world's commercial fabric is credit and confidence therein; without it the shuttle of business carries the woof of enterprise and daring to no

practical business purpose. It has been so on a more and more complex scale ever since the infinite division of labor made it both customary and advisable to conduct business as it is conducted. Mr. Carnegie, in common with some of the most advanced socialistic thinkers, has said that the complexity of business, with the gigantic undertakings of huge modern-day corporations, will tend to make panics more and more frequent and of greater severity as the years go on.

Current histories of the panic of 1907 already are beginning to chronicle that recent horror as the severest financial collapse in the life of the country. Whether this bears out Mr. Carnegie and others who have drawn conclusions as to future crises or not, there is something approaching unanimity among the most careful economists to-day as to the great fundamental causes of the panic. While doubtless the thing that precipitated the crash was the exposure of rottenness in certain New York banks and speculative houses and the fright following the inability of New York bankers to control the situation after they had started to clean up the

dirty places, doubtless, also, there would have been something very nearly approximating the panic even without this New York bank scandal. Reference may be had to a score or more of sane, orderly publications, which, for upward of a year, had been calling attention to the dangers confronting the business world. Chief of the crimes of the past two years was that of unwarranted optimism — blindness to events which were marching steadily to the brink of the commercial precipice. Few were the men, who, looking over their records of past business experience, gleaned a lesson for their own safety.

In January of 1906, the writer chanced to be in the company of two men known the country over for business success. One of them, the head of one of the largest piano factories in the world, said:

"The country is drunk with success. The man who does not clean house with his business affairs to-day is a fool."

The other man acquiesced. The piano manufacturer did "clean house"; the storm came; his credit was A-1, and now he is preparing to take advantage of cheaper labor, lower prices of materials, etc., in order to expand for the next wave of prosperity, which he is sane enough to know will come, whether to-morrow or the next day makes no great difference to him. He was and is prepared for anything.

The man who seconded the shrewd one's opinion did not act upon that judgment. A big machinery concern of which he was a director had planned an elaborate extension of plants, and he had intended to talk against the plan and, if possible, defeat it. He hesitated, then voted for the plan. The extensions were made, and for six months were profitable. But to-day, not only are the extensions idle, but the whole plant is closed down. And what is more, the man's chief business has fallen upon evil days, and it has been publicly announced that his house has suspended operations in its heretofore most profitable territory.

This much by way of a preface to the statement that history has proved there are cycles of business prosperity and reaction. Whether they are necessary or not, is another thing. Every panic we have experienced has taken a definite position in a train of events which runs positively *like this*:

1. Prosperity.

2. Business excesses; high prices; reckless overexpansion and speculation, not only in stocks and real estate, but in lumber, iron, steel, copper, bread and butter, clothing and all necessities and luxuries.

3. Strained credit and waning confidence, followed by a panic at the most inopportune moment.

4. Quiescence after panic.

5. Returning confidence and renewed prosperity.

6. Again the usual crime of over-optimism and subsequent panic.

One might cite dozens of examples of eminent financiers who, like prophets without honor in their own country, asked the populace to be less extravagant, to conserve something against the inevitable day of reckoning. These include Morgan, Hill, Harriman, Schiff and almost all the rest of the list which some people choose to label "undesirable citizens." Perhaps that is one reason why so little attention was paid to their opinions. But the chief point to be made is that it had been reiterated, as above, that reaction, sooner or later, must follow extreme and reasonable prosperity. This reaction has come. It is our purpose now to indicate by past experiences why and, in a degree how, another wave of prosperity will come. While it is frequently difficult to distinguish the lines which mark the boundaries of the different periods in the rise from panic to prosperity and in the subsequent fall, there is little doubt where the country as a whole now finds itself. It is customary to consider the period of suspended or delayed currency payments at the banks the real period of panic. The clearing houses of the whole country have called in their scrip, and currency is once more in general use. Hence, the financial panic period is definitely in the past.

But the shock brought by panic, such as this latest one, ramifies the commercial world in such a manner as not to be always discernible in its full effects for some time. Therefore, it usually is some months before all the commercial deaths due to a financial crisis are recorded. By the same line of reasoning, it follows that recuperation from the shock is not always visible when it is really at hand. It takes time to check up the weak spots and to

know they exist. Often, by the time the weakness has been discovered, something may have developed which permits a sustaining hand to be put out to assist the failing one. Often, also, has it proved to be the case that before the business world has learned of the precarious state of a commercial patient, the doctors have applied the necessary restorative.

And, as failing credit and confidence are the causes of the disease which may lay waste a whole section of the country, so renewed credit and restored confidence are the remedies which, if applied soon enough, will rally the patient to commercial health. Throughout all the cycles of business, from panic to prosperity, this remedy is in use. The chief other element in the situation is time. Two signs, then, of the future which it is expedient we should have in view are the degree to which confidence is returning and the length of time it will take to get over the shock of panic and disturbed business relations.

There is one well-known index as to credit, the money market. When money rates fall and surpluses pile up in bank vaults, it is inevitable that the public already has announced its renewed faith in the banking institutions of the country. The tendency in this direction is always first seen in the money centers. And already is this sign present. Whereas in November the New York banks reported a deficit of \$54,000,000, with time money practically unobtainable and call loans as high as fifty per cent, now there is a surplus reserve nearly as large as the previous deficit; time money in plenty can be had at $3\frac{3}{4}$ to $4\frac{3}{4}$ per cent, and call loans go begging at $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. This tendency is not so marked at the other centers, but it may be said truthfully that money is now normally easy, save with such men as have been in strained and very doubtful position as to credit within a short period.

This sign is taken to be a two-edged sword by many observers. Doubtless this cheapened credit comes in a great degree from the let-down in business occasioned by the recent crisis. Were business still going forward at its recently accustomed break-neck speed, money still would be so closely employed as to be scarce and high. Therefore, we are not surprised when the

great railroad companies report extraordinary decreases in their earnings, or when such a concern as the United States Steel Corporation shows a decline in its monthly net earnings from \$15,000,000 in October to \$5,000,000 in December. It comes perhaps, with something more of a shock, however, when we look over the list of commercial deaths and find the liabilities of such concerns as have succumbed to the shock to be as follows:

	1908.	1907.	1906.	1905.
Jan.	\$27,099,514	\$13,628,126	\$11,952,455	\$10,417,205
Feb.	10,283,770	10,859,619	9,780,370
March	8,163,695	10,949,033	9,964,980
April	11,082,096	8,059,649	8,056,866
May	9,965,410	12,992,809	8,907,301
June	16,445,565	7,850,509	8,777,913
July	12,334,710	6,919,014	6,148,980
Aug.	15,197,749	8,821,154	6,140,566
Sept.	18,935,227	6,255,995	8,089,947
Oct.	27,414,900	10,553,714	6,751,992
Nov.	17,637,011	11,980,782	8,866,798
Dec.	36,299,504	12,006,782	10,823,354

We are inclined to pause before such an exhibit and wonder how long big business concerns can fail with such aggregate liabilities as are shown above in the months from October to January. Then we run back to those of June and July and see how the storm was gathering before it broke in all its October fury. This prompts an inspection of similar storm periods around 1903 and 1904, and still further back in 1896 and 1893, and it can be said that, without fail, a time has come when, either through sheer exhaustion or some palliative, the storm has ceased to work for danger. Witness the rapid decline in failure liabilities from \$346,779,000 in 1893 to \$172,992,000 in 1894; from \$226,096,000 in 1896 to \$90,879,000 in 1899, and again from \$155,444,000 in 1904 to \$102,676,000 in 1905.

If it were expedient to produce all the facts bearing on these previous recoveries it would be seen that, as indicated heretofore, returning confidence, increasing bank surpluses and low money rates preceded or accompanied these decreasing commercial deaths. Naturally it is to be assumed, and rationally, too, that, these conditions being present after the recent crisis, they must work eventually for a rejuvenation of business. As to failure liabilities, it is too soon to speak definitely. Not only do the number and liabilities of bankrupt concerns still hold at high level, but were there a tendency for liabilities to decrease, the total at this time could not be viewed far enough in retrospect to

draw absolute conclusions that failures were on the decline.

But of the loan market there is positive evidence. As already stated, money rates are the index, and a business man or corporation of standing can get accommodations where necessary. And this brings us to the most important phase of the whole business situation.

We have already spoken of the complexity of modern business methods. One of the requisites of to-day is financing cities and corporations by means of securities. It is a recognized fact that one of the chief causes of the recent panic was the growth of the country beyond its supplies of available capital. Corporations tried one expedient after another for financing their expansions to meet the demands of the public until it was practically prohibitive to issue bonds. Stocks were resorted to and they failed. Then came short-term notes, because high interest rates were demanded in the money market and corporations hoped it would be only a few years before they could replace these notes with permanent securities financed in a low money market.

Nearly every well-informed person is familiar with the extraordinarily low prices at which all classes of securities, good and bad, sold in November and December. It is an axiom of finance that securities in time will adjust themselves to money rates in the open market. That is what is taking place to-day. Already nearly all the bargains in the municipal bond market have disappeared. Whereas in December, by reason of the cash money necessities of banks, insurance companies and individual investors, some municipal bonds sold at prices to net six per cent or thereabouts, to-day there are few such bonds that have not advanced until they yield only around four to four and one-half per cent. Railroad bonds have recovered practically all the loss recorded during the year 1907. Numerous well-known public-service corporation bonds have shown somewhat similar recoveries.

It has been the endeavor here to show thus far that, given the sinews of war, in business, money or credit, the fight for new successes must go on again. In some influential quarters it is broadly assumed that the presidential campaign, with its *harangues*, may cause enough further

political disturbance of business not to permit general commerce to get into its accustomed swing until after the election. It would be idle to try to point to the definite time when new high records in the business field shall be established once more. Too much should not be expected after such a shrinkage as is reflected in statistics showing three hundred and forty thousand freight cars in idleness in January against only three thousand late in October. This we know, however, that in financial circles recuperation already has set in.

Another thing usually lost sight of is that last year the products of the American farms were valued at approximately seven and one-quarter billions of dollars. Pause a moment to consider how many steel corporations, railroads and cities this amount of wealth would supply for a year. Nor has the country stopped grinding out this wealth. In 1908 this production doubtless will exceed that of 1907. Where is this wealth going if not into general consumption? And what does this consumption mean but transportation, new equipment needs for railroads, new orders for equipment shops and rail mills, and so on around the endless chain of supply and demand?

After one of our previous panics, when practically every element now present in the situation was plainly visible, the president of one of the largest railways operating out of Chicago expressed the petulant wish that he had not an outstanding order for a new car or for a pound of new rails. Within six weeks the whole country had the signal that the onward march had been resumed, and this railroad president came into an advancing market for additional supplies for his road.

We have had a panic, true; but it is an ill wind that blows nobody good, and after having cried for years for cheaper labor and materials, and, at the same time, having iterated and reiterated that the railroads of the country alone can not possibly be financed fast enough to meet the needs of posterity, are the railroad magnates going to overlook present opportunities in the investment, labor and material markets?

The signs of the times are so plain that he who runs may read, and they point to another wave of prosperity.

BOOKS AND READING

History and Travel

The Tragedy of Russia in Pacific Asia. By Frederick McCormick. New York: Outing Publishing Company. 2 vol. Pp. 10+481; 10+435. \$6 net.

This well-known newspaper correspondent gives us a vivid account of the late Russo-Japanese War. It naturally covers the ground by this time well known, but it has a genuinely historical worth. The author was in Port Arthur at the time of the breaking out of the war, and writes from the Russian side of the hostilities. He became thoroughly acquainted with the Russian generals and saw most of the great battles. His account, while not that of the technical military writer, has all the vividness of the newspaper correspondent, and so far as one who is himself not a specialist in military campaigns can see, is trustworthy. Particularly interesting are the illustrations with which the volume abounds. Some are from photographs, some from drawings by Mr. McCormick. An important and unusual series of studies of the Japanese and Chinese in the war complete the volumes. Mr. McCormick makes it apparent that the Russians were beaten by themselves quite as much as by the Japanese. It should be added that the volume abounds in character sketches of Russian generals; and the reading of these sketches will go far toward enabling one to make his own estimate as to the cause of the Russian collapse.

Ancient Italy. Historical and geographical.

Investigations in Central Italy, Magna Græcia, Sicily, and Sardinia. By Ettore Pais. Translated from the Italian by C. Densmore Curtis. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press; London: Fisher Unwin. 1908. \$5 net.

Professor Pais, the eminent Italian historian, who, it will be remembered, lectured in this country two years ago, offers to the English-speaking public a collection of twenty-six critical essays on such varied subjects as Ansonia and the Ansonians, The Expedition of Alexander of Epirus to Italy, The Temple of the Sirens Near Sorrento, "Concerning the Early History of Pisa," etc., all of which, however, are bound together by their relation to the central theme of Roman and Sicilian history. Although obviously addressed primarily to specialists, the make-up of the book is so attractive that it may well beguile the general reader to venture even beyond his depth.

L. C. Page & Company are doing the reading public admirable service in the publication of a series of books dealing with foreign countries. Three of these have recently appeared, "*Mexico and Her People of To-day*," by Nevin O. Win-

ter (\$3 net); "*Castles and Chateaux of Old Navarre*," by Francis Miltoun (\$3); "*Castles and Keeps of Scotland*," by Frank Roy Fraprie (\$3). All these books are printed in admirable fashion and are illustrated profusely. Each one of them will make a thoroughly reliable introduction to the country which it describes. Such a series is distinctly an honor to the publishers, and it is to be hoped will justify further publication of similar volumes.

Lilian Whiting is already well known as a writer of volumes of travel quite apart from her writings along moral and religious lines. In "*Italy, the Magic Land*" (Little, Brown & Co., \$2.50 net) she does not delve into the history of Rome as much as she deals with Italy as it is to-day. She is, however, not indifferent to the effect of the past on different Italian cities, particularly Rome, Venice and Assisi, but she is more concerned in putting the reader in touch with the actual Italy he will see. The book will make an admirable introduction to travels in an ever-fascinating land.

A translation, by Horatio F. Brown, of Pompeo Molmenti's "*Venice, The Golden Ages*" (A. C. McClurg & Co., \$3 net), in two volumes, contains all that is worth recording of a research into the life of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. In that age the pomp, magnificence and luxuriousness of the social life of Venice reached its culmination and the corruption of manners began. The volumes are profusely illustrated and consider the government, literature, art, science, schools, press and stage, in detail. A serious fault with the translation, or rather the lack of it, is that all quotations from other writers, and there are many of them cited, are left in the original.

George Louis Beer publishes a rather unusual book in "*British Colonial Policy—1754-1765*" (Macmillan, \$2 net), the period in which this same colonial policy stirred the American colonies to revolt. The book is, therefore, sure to be of value, not only to historical students, but also to those who are interested in studying social movements.

Henry Altemus Company publish a clever little book, "*Ifs of History*," by Joseph Edgar Chamberlin. In it is shown how the course of history has been shaped by separate events and what might have been the result if certain events, some of apparently no significance, had not taken place. Thus, for example, what might have happened if George Washington's mother had not refused to let her son become a British midshipman, even after his trunk had been put on a British vessel. The volume also deals with larger matters, like the defeat of the Persians and Saracens.

Ida Kremer was a governess in the house of the Countess Montignoso for several months in 1906, and her experiences there make up the material for her book, "*The Struggle for a Royal Child, Anna Monica Pia, Duchess of Saxe*"

(Kennerley, \$1.50). The volume is an echo from the controversy between the royal family of Saxony and the derelict wife of one of its princes—a controversy waged acrimoniously and fervidly in Europe, but of slight interest to Americans. As for the "struggle," the book discloses none. The Countess wished to keep her daughter with her, the governess under her instructions from home wished the child brought back to her father, and the Countess had her way. Thereupon the governess went home. One forms some notion of the ill-regulated life led by the Countess, who has much more temperament than apparent judgment, and this is the sole interest.

While "*The History of Music to the Death of Schubert*" (Henry Holt & Co., \$1.50), by John K. Paine, late professor of music in Harvard University, is essentially valuable as a text-book in the history of music, and for its technical detail, it is so skilfully compiled and written as to hold the interest of the reader throughout its pages. It is a work that will enable one to connect the historical periods in music and the lives of musicians with contemporaneous political and literary history.

"*Heralds of American Literature: A Group of Patriot Writers of the Revolutionary and National Periods*" (University of Chicago Press, \$1.50 net) is a series of studies by Annie Russell Marble, M.A., of Francis Hopkinson, Philip Freneau, John Trumbull, the Hartford Wits, Joseph Denie, William Dunlap, and Charles Brockden Brown, prefaced by an introduction showing the beginnings of American letters and the debt due to Benjamin Franklin, and concluded by a detailed bibliography. The papers place their stress on the literary attainments of the several personalities under discussion, and bear marks of considerable original research.

Economics

Charles E. Russell has rewritten and unified the articles recently published in *Everybody's* and has issued them as "*The Uprising of the Many*" (Doubleday, Page & Company, \$1.50). The temper of the book is really to be seen in the series of pictures which constitute the unusual preface, in which are portrayed "the many at the bottom of the human pile whose condition is becoming an impulse toward a more human civilization." The book is written from the point of view of a critic of all forms of corporate injustice, but it is, at the same time, splendidly hopeful. Mr. Russell traveled around the world studying the methods by which the condition of humanity is being improved. In view of his investigations he suggests a certain way out of the present social inequality. In a word, his prescription is municipal trading and public ownership. However much or little we may agree with this as a panacea, there can be no question that Mr. Russell has given us a thoroughly readable and important collection of data.

"*The Confession and Autobiography of Harry Orchard*" have been published by McClure Company. (\$1.50.) While the interest in the trial in which he figured has to some extent abated, the story is an alarming one as an indication of the extent to which certain men will go in bringing about their ends. There is no reason that we

know to doubt the genuineness of this confession, although it was impossible to substantiate it technically in such a way as to convict Moyer and Pettibone.

"*The World's Commercial Products*" (Ginn & Co., 390 pp.), by W. G. Freeman and S. E. Chandler, of the Imperial Institute, London, is the first inexpensive illustrated book in English giving a descriptive account of the economic plants of the world and of their commercial uses. It contains about four hundred illustrations, many of them in color.

"*Commercial Raw Materials*" (Ginn & Co., \$1.25), by Charles R. Toothaker, curator of the Philadelphia Museums, although a smaller volume than the preceding, covers a much larger field. It contains a brief consideration of the origin and processes of preparation of more than one thousand of the world's commercial materials. The volume was originally prepared to be used in connection with the study of commercial geography, and with this end in view there have been prepared fifty maps of the world showing the geographical distribution of the principal products.

Philosophy and Religion

A most stimulating book for all those interested in religious matters is P. T. Forsyth's Lyman Beecher Lectures on "*Positive Preaching and the Modern Mind*" (Armstrong's). Dr. Forsyth is in many ways sympathetic with modern movements in theological thought, but is not convinced that a liberal theology can abandon the Gospel, either from the point of view of the historico-religious argument or from that of the pessimistic philosophy of the day. By a positive theology he means one which finds the significance in Jesus not at the point where he is in common with humanity, but at the points where he differs from humanity. He would not have the Christian teaching abandon the eternal sonship, mediatorship and the resurrection of Jesus. By mediatorship, he means primarily the atonement. He holds that the virgin birth is not "relevant to the incarnation" and states that the "issue of the hour" is less about Jesus than about Paul. He believes in freedom, but not in excessive individualism, and that theology should be ethicized and correlated in some way with the doctrine of evolution. As he sees it, the question is less one of criticism than of dogmatics. The book is written with great fervor and is to some extent the author's own apologia. Its style is somewhat too antithetic, and in places the reader is almost wearied by prolonged contrasts. In many cases these antitheses are not mutually exclusive. The volume will not satisfy men who are engaged in a radical reconstruction of Christian doctrine, and even less those to whom the chief significance of Jesus lies in his life and teaching rather than in his death and resurrection. But it is a book which is brimful of stimulus and has an aggressive note that ought to go far to counteract the spirit of concession and interrogation which has crept into modern theological thought.

Dr. R. J. Campbell, of the City Temple, London, follows his book on the "*New Theology Sermons*" with a striking volume on "*Christianity and the Social Order*" (Macmillan, \$1.50 net).

Dr. Campbell is a socialist because he is a monist, but even more, he is a Christian. His volume is one which must be reckoned with. It represents a very decided trend in modern thought, and while it will satisfy neither the thoroughgoing anti-theists nor the equally thoroughgoing conservative, it sets forth a social program that can not be thrust away with a contemptuous sentence or two. Dr. Campbell's socialism is of the collective type, as set forth by the Fabians. Sooner or later—and more probably sooner than later—Christians will have to determine as to whether or not they will join the Socialists. Dr. Campbell does not rest satisfied with mere criticism of the existing order, but he undertakes to reconstruct the state. There are plenty of opportunities to criticize such reconstruction, but here as in his more general treatment he sets forth ideas which must be given careful consideration. From the point of view of some, the book will appear dangerous. From that of others it will appear prophetic. From our own point of view we welcome it as an honest attempt at bringing Christianity into dynamic relation with social movements.

Twelve years ago Professor E. W. Scripture issued the first edition of his "*Thinking, Feeling and Doing*" (Putnam's), an introduction to mental science. He has now issued a second and revised edition of this work, in which his treatment is brought up to date, and the volume is reinforced by references to recent literature in the field of physiological psychology. The volume is very largely devoted to setting forth the result of experiments in nervous reactions in thought, feeling and willing. It is farthest possible removed from the ordinary book on psychology. It will serve as a most useful introduction to experimental psychology and is so easily understood as to be within the comprehension of the most untechnical reader.

Ian Maclaren, the late Rev. John Watson, leaves every reader indebted for the information and humor in "*The Scot of the Eighteenth Century: His Religion and His Life*" (A. C. Armstrong & Son, \$1.75). The treatment throughout is effectual disproof of Dr. Johnson's criticism of Scottish humor, but the active sense of fun is never permitted to override the living sense of sympathy, especially for the Kirk. One comes from the reading with an increased respect for these sturdy men of the North who, whatever their austerities, were always friends and advocates of human freedom and individual development.

It is only a few months ago that Frederick Harrison published his "*Creed of a Layman*" (Macmillan, \$1.75 net). Now he gathers together a series of other studies and calls it "*The Philosophy of Common Sense*." It is the real philosophical basis upon which Mr. Harrison's positivism rests. Among the essays of the book is some exceedingly vigorous writing, some of which will please the religious man of the ordinary sort much better than it will the agnostic. The author is particularly concerned with Spencer, Lewes, and Huxley. A thoroughgoing positivist, he has little patience with those who can not see what is to him the gospel of that philosophy, but every page is bristling with sentences that make a man realize that whoever holds views contrary to Mr. Harrison's must be prepared to defend them.

The two volumes form an admirable exposition in intelligent terms of latter-day positivism.

Fiction

"*Somehow Good*," By William DeMorgan. New York: Henry Holt & Company. Pp. 565. \$1.75.

Three volumes in eighteen months is a pretty good record for a writer even of trashy novels, but it is next to a miracle if one turns out volumes of the quality of Mr. DeMorgan's. His third story "*Somehow Good*" is as human as "*Joseph Vance*" and as unusual as "*Allice-for-Short*." To our minds it is the best of the three, in point of view of distinctness of plot and compelling human interest. It is a story that circles about the gradual recovery of a totally lost memory on the part of a man who has married the woman he had divorced shortly before her child was born. The woman recognized him from the first and tells him of her past. The reader is thus put in full possession of the facts after the first few chapters of the book, and he sits as a sympathetic spectator in expectation of the struggle that he knows is sure to come when the man recovers from the effect of the accident which has dissociated him from his earlier self. Mr. DeMorgan tells the story without any false climaxes and with the sentiment that always rings true. You can not hurry through the book any more than you can hurry through its two predecessors. You share the author's interest in his characters and you are led now and then, with that same Thackeray-like suggestiveness which we have noticed in Mr. DeMorgan's other work, into the larger aspects of every episode. In a word, it is really a great piece of writing, with a maturity of touch and a sense of reality which makes most of the literary lights of the day look like tallow dips.

"*Janet of the Dunes*" (Little, Brown & Co., \$1.50) is a story of New England, especially of a lighthouse and a neighboring village overrun by painters, written with sympathy by Harriet T. Comstock. The heroine is a living soul, devoted to the old man whom she thinks is her father. Her affections are engaged by a painter of repute, who takes her to be his model amid her native surroundings. The tragedy back of the girl's birth is disclosed, but the story ends sweetly and happily. The contrast between the every-day life of the natives and of the artists' colony is well drawn, and the thin veneer over the realities of life disclosed.

"*Mystery Island*," by Edward H. Hurst (L. C. Page & Co., \$1.50), is a somewhat crude story of murder, love and adventure. In its opening chapters it develops a plot which involves some highly mysterious events and persons. The chief villain, an embezzler, is of that cold-blooded type which stops at no violence, but who meets his master in the midst of the Everglades of Florida.

"*The Jeweled Toad*" (Bobbs-Merrill, \$1.50) is written by Isabel Johnston, with pictures by William Wallace Denslow. A most tyrannical king and a little girl named Towsey play the chief parts, but it is a small boy who finally obtains the jewel from the head of the toad and dethrones the wicked king.

THE CALENDAR OF THE MONTH

United States

Administration.—February 5.—By order of President Roosevelt, Public Printer Charles A. Stillings was temporarily suspended from office on charges of high cost in operation of the office.

Bequest.—January 27.—The will of Morris K. Jesup contained bequest of \$1,000,000 to the American Museum of Natural History.

Casualties.—January 13.—One hundred and seventy persons burned to death in a fire in Rhoades' theater, Boyertown, Pa.

—February 3.—Fifteen men lose their lives by drowning when the steamer St. Cuthbert burns in mid-sea.

Congress.—January 15.—The Senate passed a joint resolution remitting to China about \$13,000,000 of the Boxer indemnity.

—January 31.—President Roosevelt sent a special message to Congress. [See Events.]

—February 3.—The House passed a general widows' pension bill, granting a flat pension of \$12 a month to the widows of all honorably discharged soldiers of the United States who have not heretofore received a pension, and an increase of \$4 a month for all who have, under the act of June 27, 1890. The bill involves the expenditure of \$13,000,000 annually.

—February 4.—The Senate passed the urgent deficiency bill carrying an appropriation of over \$24,000,000.

Copyright.—February 3.—The Supreme Court of the United States affirmed that a copyrighted book published in the United States and republished in another country from the same plates, though without copyright notice attached, can be protected from infringement.

Deaths.—January 14.—James Ryder Randall war poet, author of "Maryland, My Maryland," aged 65.

—January 18.—Edmund Clarence Stedman, poet and critic, aged 74.

—January 19.—Charles Emory Smith, journalist and former minister to Russia and Postmaster-General, aged 66.

—January 22.—Morris K. Jesup, philanthropist and banker, aged 78.

—January 23.—Edward Alexander McDowell, musical composer, aged 46.

—January 27.—General Charles H. Howard, distinguished war veteran, aged 70.

—February 2.—David Johnson, landscape painter, aged 80.

—February 3.—Colonel Thomas G. Lawler, former Commander-in-Chief of the Grand Army of the Republic, aged 63. . . . Joseph G. Burton, last survivor of the meeting at Alton, Ill., in 1834, when Elijah Lovejoy and others formed the first abolitionist organization in the state.

Gubernatorial.—January 21.—Edmond F. Noel inaugurated Governor of Mississippi, and John Franklin Fort, Governor of New Jersey.

Labor.—January 16.—The Nevada State Senate passed a resolution asking President Roosevelt to retain troops in Goldfield until the legislature

can pass a law providing for a police force or some other method of maintaining the peace.

—January 17.—President Roosevelt acceded to request of State Senate.

—January 21.—The nineteenth annual convention of the United Mine Workers of America opened in Indianapolis with 1,000 delegates. President John Mitchell made an official farewell speech after service of nine years and seven months. A personal gift of \$2,700 from the miners of Wyoming and Montana as an appreciation of his efforts to better their condition was declined, but later permitted to be given to Mrs. Mitchell.

—January 23.—The Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Company reduced salaries of all officers and employees receiving over \$166 per month. . . . The Baldwin Locomotive Works reduced its force by 8,000 men, and its working hours 60 per cent. . . . Local cotton mills in Waltham, Mass., resumed full time.

—January 27.—The Supreme Court of the United States declared unconstitutional the Act of Congress of June 1, 1898, prohibiting railroad companies engaged in interstate commerce from discriminating against members of labor organizations in the matter of employment. The case in which opinion was rendered was that of William Adair vs. the United States. . . . Thirty thousand idle men re-employed by resumption of operations at thirty-eight mines of the Reading Coal and Iron Co., and in addition several thousand in the steel industry. In Detroit 3,000 men re-employed in car foundry.

—February 3.—Thomas L. Lewis elected President of the United Mine Workers. . . . The Supreme Court of the United States affirmed that the Sherman anti-trust law prohibits boycotting by labor unions as being a combination in restraint of trade. The case in which decision was given was Lawler vs. Loewe, of Danbury, Conn.

—February 5.—The Louisville & Nashville Railroad reduced all salaries over \$250 per month. . . . One thousand men called back to work by the Pennsylvania Steel Company after a month's idleness.

—February 10.—Between 5,000 and 6,000 men returned to work at Lorain, Ohio, and several hundreds at other places.

Municipal.—January 17.—Congressman H. Burd Cassel, of Marietta, architect Joseph M. Huston and contractor John H. Sanderson, of Philadelphia, indicted by the grand jury on the charge of defrauding the state of \$50,160 in the construction of the state capitol.

Night Riders.—February 4.—Two hundred masked night riders visited Dycusburg, Ky., and set fire to Bennett's tobacco warehouse and distillery. Loss, \$40,000. Henry Bennett, one of the firm, and William Groves, the foreman, were whipped almost to death.

Primary Bill.—January 29.—The Oglesby direct primary bill passed the Illinois House of Representatives by a vote of 88 to 33. With Governor Deneen's signature it becomes law.

Railroads.—January 21.—The Philadelphia & Reading Railway Company announced that, owing to depression in business and falling off in passenger receipts, forty-one local trains would be discontinued.

—January 23.—The Philadelphia Rapid Transit withdrew over 100 cars from service because of falling off of travel. [See Labor.]

—February 4.—The only fast train between St. Louis and Mexico makes its last trip this week, owing to lack of business. The Lehigh Valley Road takes off the Black Diamond Express and reduces operating expenses ten per cent.

—February 5.—Beginning February 9 the Santa Fe Railroad will annul ten principal local passenger trains in Kansas because of decrease in the road's earnings the past year.

Senatorial.—January 14.—William Pinckney Whyte, elected United States Senator from Maryland to fill the unexpired portion of the late Senator Gorman's term.

—January 15.—Walter Smith elected United States Senator from Maryland by the General Assembly in joint convention, for the full term of six years, from March 4, 1909.

—January 21.—Congressman John Sharp Williams, elected to the United States Senate to succeed D. H. Money, whose term expires March 4, 1911. . . . Former United States Senator George Peabody Wetmore elected to the United States Senate to represent Rhode Island.

Trusts.—January 24.—The grand jury of Franklin County, Ky., indicted the International Harvester Company of Milwaukee, on a charge of combining to control prices.

—February 5.—On indictments charging conspiracy to defraud the government, Ernest W. Gerbracht, chief sugar expert of the American Sugar Refining Company, and other employees of the company arrested.

Cuba

Independence.—January 14.—The letter of President Roosevelt to Secretary Taft, announcing that February 1, 1909, will be the latest date for turning over the island to the President and Congress of Cuba, was made public.

Rebellion.—February 5.—Three of the six men indicted last September for attempting to subvert the provincial government and get rid of Americans in Cuba, sentenced to thirty-nine months' imprisonment. The other three acquitted.

Guatemala

Railroad.—January 19.—The Guatemala Northern Railway, the third line of rails within Latin-America connecting the Atlantic and the Pacific oceans, was opened.

Haiti

Revolution.—January 16.—Haitians who have been in exile captured the towns of Gonaives and St. Marc. The government dispatched troops to check further advance of the revolutionists.

—January 17.—The Haitian government declared the ports of Gonaives and St. Marc blockaded. General Jadotte, commandant of the government troops killed, also General Deslouches, commanding the revolutionary troops.

—January 23.—The arrest of José M. Giordani in New York with \$800,000 of counterfeit

Haitian paper money in his possession, proved him to be the agent of a revolutionary conspiracy to overthrow President Nord's government in Haiti.

British Empire

Deaths.—January 19.—Sir John Lawson Walton, K. C., attorney-general of England, aged 56.

—January 23.—August Wilhelmj, violinist and concert master, aged 62.

Newspaper.—January 17.—The London Times announced that no sale of itself had been effected, the previous statement referring only to negotiations that were in progress.

Parliament.—January 29.—The King opened Parliament and read his speech from the throne.

South Africa

Cape Colony.—January 31.—Dr. Leander Starr Jameson, prime minister and secretary for native affairs, resigned.

Transvaal

Race Conflict.—January 14.—Further arrests of Indians who refused to comply with the registration law included the chairman and treasurer of the British Indian Association and the Islamic Secretary, who is a merchant.

—January 29.—The registration trouble ended by the government agreeing to accept signatures as a means of registration instead of fingerprints. Imprisoned Indians to be released.

France

Airship.—January 13.—Henry Farman won the Deutsche-Arch-deacon prize of \$10,000 by making a circular kilometer in an airship heavier than air. The time was 1 minute, 28 seconds, and the distance covered, four-fifths of a mile.

Death.—January 28.—François Marie Benjamin Richard, cardinal and archbishop of Paris, aged 88.

Portugal

Cabinet.—February 2.—Premier Franco and the entire ministry resigned on an agreement with the Progressive and Regenerationist parties that they would support the government if a coalition cabinet was formed. Admiral Ferreira do Amaral chosen premier. [See Events.]

—February 5.—Ex-Premier Franco left Portugal for Spain, and thence to Paris because of threats of death made against him.

Political Plot.—January 23.—A plot to assassinate Premier Franco and overthrow the government discovered by police and arrests made, including the leader, Joao Chagas.

—February 4.—Ninety-four political prisoners deported to African prisons.

King Slain.—February 1.—King Carlos and the Crown Prince, Luiz Felipe, shot at and killed as they were driving from the railway station to the palace in Lisbon. [See Events.]

New King.—February 2.—Prince Manuel proclaimed King, as Manuel II.

—February 3.—Martial law and the suspension of constitutional guarantees proclaimed in Lisbon.

—February 5.—King Manuel signed three decrees: one repealing that of Franco, restricting the press; another repealing the decree of suspension from immunity from prosecution of mem-

bers of Parliament; the third promised liberation to members of Parliament now under arrest.

—February 10.—Funeral of King Carlos and his son. Burial in the Pantheon, Lisbon.

Italy

Death.—January 25.—Louise de la Ramee (Ouida), writer, aged 78.

German Empire

Riots.—January 12.—Socialistic disturbances in Berlin resulted in injury to over 100 persons. In Frankfort there was similar rioting and in Essen and Cologne processions paraded the streets singing the Marseillaise.

—January 21.—Riotous demonstrations made by unemployed men in Berlin. Many injured by police, at whom rioters threw bricks. Estimated there are about 60,000 men without work in Berlin.

—January 22.—Several persons injured and many arrests made in Brunswick as the result of conflict between the police and Socialists in a parade demanding universal manhood suffrage.

Universal Suffrage.—January 22.—Chancellor von Buelow replying in the reichstag to an interpellation by the Social Democrats why the government should not grant the manhood suffrage system for the election of Prussian deputies, said the reichstag had nothing to do with the internal concerns of Prussia.

Russian Empire

Cabinet.—January 13.—An imperial ukase dismissed from office M. von Kauffman, minister of education, and appointed as his successor M. Schwartz. Reactionists had long agitated for Kauffman's retirement.

—January 22.—Assistant Minister of the Interior Gurko dismissed from office because of his connection with the Lidval grain scandal.

Finland.—February 3.—The Emperor rebuked the diet for its declaration that its contribution of 20,000,000 marks for military defense of the empire would be the last paid under the agreement of 1905. The Emperor announced that the disposition of the military funds of the grand duchy of Finland was his prerogative. The Russian forces in Finland have been strengthened.

Revolutionary Damages.—January 29.—Landowners in the Baltic provinces who brought suit against insurance companies for compensation because of incendiary damages by revolutionists in the years 1905 and 1906 were successful in obtaining a favorable decision from the courts.

Stocssel.—January 17.—Lieutenant-General Stocssel sent direct to Emperor Nicholas a protest against the exclusion of witnesses for the defense and other alleged discriminations by the court martial. In reply, General Stroukoff, personal aide-de-camp of the Emperor, took a seat upon the bench in court for the purpose of furnishing a report to the Emperor.

Morocco

Civil War.—January 13.—The machinations of the powerful Sheik El Killani responsible for the deposition of Abd-el-Aziz and proclamation of

Mulai Hafid. The former's officials, including his brother and uncle, signed the deposing act and the appointment of the new Sultan.

—January 14.—Mulai Hafid sent a commission to Paris, which declared that Mulai will scrupulously observe the treaty, including the Algeciras act. The holy war declared to be, not against foreigners, but against Abd-el-Aziz and the governing board of Morocco.

—January 16.—A ten hours' battle between a French column under General d'Amade and some of Mulai Hafid's forces occurred near Settal. The French dispersed the enemy and occupied the town.

—January 17.—The French troops captured Caid Duldel Hadjhammon, the principal instigator of the massacre at Casablanca.

—February 3.—A French column attacked by Arabs finally repulsed after loss of eight Frenchmen, and fifty wounded. The enemy suffered heavy loss.

Raisuli.—January 13.—Raisuli, the bandit, reported to have joined Mulai Hafid, and to persist in his refusal to release Caid Sir Harry McLean, except by order of the new leader.

—February 7.—Caid Sir Harry McLean officially turned over to the British Charge d'Affaires at Tangier, for release on payment of ransom by the British government.

Persia

Capture by Turks.—January 13.—Prince Firman Firma, governor of the province of Azerbaidjan and minister of justice, surrounded by Turks near Sandshbulak, and his rifles and cash box containing \$150,000 seized. He appealed to Parliament.

Japan

Cabinet Crisis.—January 14.—The premier, Marquis Saionji, tendered his resignation, but the Emperor declined to receive it. The resignations of Yoshio Sakatani, minister of finance, and Isaburo Yainagata, minister of communication, were accepted. Masahisa Matsura, minister of justice, will also take the portfolio of finance, and Keihara, minister of the interior, that of communication, thus leaving the cabinet without new elements but removing two disturbing factors. Difference of opinion as to taxation caused the trouble.

—January 17.—The attempts to adjust the budget which caused the cabinet crisis were settled by the postponement of certain army and navy works.

—January 23.—The government escaped a vote of censure in the lower house of the diet by a bare majority of nine on a division vote to censure.

Casualty.—February 3.—Ninety-one miners killed at Yubari colliery, Hokkaido, by a gas explosion.

Emigration.—January 21.—Viscount Hayashi, minister of foreign affairs, issued a statement declaring that the Japanese government was determined to prevent the emigration of laborers to America.

Foreign Trade.—January 23.—The imports and exports during 1907 made a total of \$460,000,000, an increase over the previous year of \$42,000,000.

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Safeguarding a New Epoch

IT is not every man who can read the signs of the times. Some of us are blind and some of us have hallucinations. But our time is plain even to the blindest. The past few years in the United States have closed one epoch and have begun a new.

Even more than we have been aware, democracy itself has been on trial. The country has faced a fundamental issue: Are Laws to be obeyed, or are they to be evaded?

* * *

It is one of the penalties of reform that men always forget the pit out of which they have been dug. The condition of affairs a few years ago was one that played into the hands of the socialists, if not of the revolutionists. We were turning out laws by the hundreds, and the lawyers were making a living telling us how not to obey them. We believed that great aggregations of wealth were all but beyond the reach of law, and knew that the miasma of graft was ruining our business health.

The plain American citizen was losing faith in the ability of the Republic to grow rich and remain democratic.

All this we are liable to forget in the excess of our new enthusiasm for civic righteousness.

* * *

True, we are by no means saints as yet, but we have begun to learn the meaning of the word Law.

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Our courts are not all they should be, but they are more respected than they were ten years ago.

Our Congressmen are too friendly with lobbyists, but they are more susceptible to public opinion.

Business men maybe are no more honest than they were once, but they are less inclined to play upon the brink of dishonesty.

This new epoch is not the work of any one man, although President Roosevelt deserves gratitude for his share in bringing it to pass. It is a new phase in the development of democracy to be seen in national, municipal and even state governments.

It is no wonder that men who have played fast and loose with the law should think themselves aggrieved. A man with privileges that he has come to believe are vested rights, dislikes to be told that he must bow to a higher law than that which his attorney formulates.

Nobody likes to be less important than he has been.

But it would be worse than idle to attempt to bring back the past. It would be sheer foolishness.

Unless we utterly mistake the temper of the country at large, we have reached a very simple alternative: Is the American people strong enough to regulate the administration of great corporations, or are we to have fastened upon us an oligarchy from which there is no release except through revolution?

And there is no question that the country chooses the first alternative.

The utterances of men, any one of whom is sure to be president of the United States, give little assurance of comfort to the men who favor reaction. No man of those who can be seriously considered presidential possibilities but stands committed to the policy of vigorous enforcement of law represented by the present administration. The new era is to be permanent.

* * *

The era of muckraking has closed. It was strenuous, indeed over-strenuous, but it did its work. The era of respect for law, or, at least of fear of law, has dawned. That which in other days has been accomplished only by bloodshed is being accomplished by the processes of democracy.

The good work will continue. We are not going back. We are going forward.

Just how far we shall go, and how rapidly, and by what means, will depend largely upon whether men who are at present in control of great industrial and financial institutions are able to read the signs of the times and govern themselves accordingly.

EVENTS OF THE MONTH

Foreign Affairs

On March 5 the text of the new treaty in regard to the Congo Independent State was submitted to the Belgian parliament by Premier Schollaert, and sent, on his motion, to committee without debate. According to its terms King Leopold agrees to relinquish the crown domain and the crown foundation to Belgium. In return, all the Congo obligations, amounting to \$21,000,000, are to be assumed by Belgium, who is also to continue the King's usufruct in the Congo revenues during his lifetime. As stated by Baron Deshamps, the minister of state, "the crown domain is larger than France and of extraordinary richness." The nation also receives "beautiful properties in the south of France which the King purchased with the revenues from the crown domain. He grants to the Belgian parliament both the administrative and budgetary control of the colony, which should satisfy the foreign critics. In return the King simply exacts an obligation that Belgium complete the works undertaken by him in this country, and a sum of money necessary to carry out his philanthropic and scientific projects in the Congo Independent State." It is believed in Brussels that if parliament refuses to ratify the treaty, King Leopold would offer the Congo State to France, in order to escape foreign intervention. That country, it appears, has a privileged right in case Belgium declines to annex the Congo State.

Just previous to the submission of the new treaty, the British House of Commons was stirred to action by the Congo situation. It adopted a resolution asking the government to "do all in its power to secure the transfer of the control of the

Congo Independent State," and, failing such transfer within reasonable time, assuring the government of "parliament's hearty support of any measures that it might be necessary for the British government to take, either alone, or in conjunction with the powers that signed the Berlin Act, to insure the effective carrying out of its provisions." Sir Edward Grey and Lord Fitzmaurice did not hesitate to speak strongly as to the necessity for a transfer of the Congo State. If the Belgian government accepted it and did not change the present conduct of affairs, the British government must be ready, Sir Edward Grey said, to deal with the questions arising from its treaty rights. Great Britain had originally consented to import duties, on condition that the proceeds be expended for the benefit of the natives. If Belgium did not take over the Congo State, the government might raise the question whether its consent had been obtained by false pretenses, and whether it was still binding. The Congo Independent State, as it existed to-day, had morally forfeited the right to international recognition. Lord Fitzmaurice stated that the conditions in the Congo have resulted in "as great a negation of international and treaty rights, as great a defiance of public law, and as great a sacrifice of the interests of humanity as anything the modern world ever has heard of." These are strong words from a British official.

The action of the House of Commons aroused great ire in the Belgian Chamber of Deputies. A demand was made by M. Van der Velde, Socialist leader of the opposition to the treaty, for the translation and publication of the British and American official reports of cruelty in the

British
Sentiment
Aroused

The
Belgian
Response

Japanese, freely testified to his heroic conduct at the time of the surrender, and during the trial Japanese army officers offered to go to St. Petersburg to testify in his favor, induced the recommendation to mercy. An appeal to the Empress was made by witnesses, who asked that she request from the Emperor a full pardon for General Stoessel, who, they asserted, was the soul of the defense of Port Arthur, and under whom, in case of war, they would be glad to serve again. The Czar, according to rumor, is likely to commute the sentence to imprisonment.

Japan and China have been in sight of war during the past few weeks. The circumstances remind one of the filibustering days in Cuba. The Japanese steamship *Tatsu*, loaded with rifles and ammunition consigned to the Portuguese market, was seized at Macao by Chinese customs officials. It was alleged that these arms were intended for Chinese revolutionists, and the vessel was taken to Canton by a Chinese cruiser and three gunboats. The Japanese government demanded an apology and indemn

office wished to go to court, but to this Japan refused to consent unless the vessel was first released and an apology made to the Japanese flag. At the time of writing, the matter is still unsettled, as Baron Hayashi, the Japanese minister to China, has not been able to make headway with Yuan Shih Kai, Grand Councillor of the Empire. The action of Japan has aroused great opposition in China, and threats have been made to the effect that if Japan forces her point a boycott will be established against Japanese goods. It is hardly to be expected that China will refuse to submit at the present time. The situation, however, indicates clearly a growing sense of independence on the part of China, and sensitiveness to the assumption of Japan that it is to be permanently the leader of the Far East. China just now is progressing, if possible, even more rapidly than did Japan ten years ago. It is rich and has an enormous population, while Japan, with a comparatively small population, is in the midst of financial difficulties.

The Nation

The Supreme Court of the United States has of late been dealing with a number of highly important matters involved in labor legislation. On the one side its decisions have been unfriendly to labor. Judges of the United States circuit courts had, during the latter part of last year, issued injunctions against boycotts and interference with non-striking employees. On January 27, the Supreme Court decided that the Erdman Act, prohibiting employers who are engaged in interstate commerce from dismissing union men, was unconstitutional. On February 2 the court decided that a boycott is a conspiracy in restraint of trade, and subject to punishment, both in the way of damages and also under the criminal provisions of the Sherman Anti-Trust Act. It will be recalled that the court had also decided the Employers' Liability Act to be unconstitutional as drawn. These decisions are undoubtedly antagonistic to certain of the methods adopted by union labor, but it is difficult to see how they are contrary to

the spirit of justice. If the Sherman Act is good for corporations, it ought to be equally good for combinations of labor.

Mr. Conductor—What! nobody for the upper berth?

Woodman, in the *Chicago Inter Ocean*

A MAP OF THE NEW YORK-PARIS MOTOR CAR RACE

at last been taken seriously in the Middle West; and in the second place, the decision argues that with the reform once established the universities are ready to move in the direction of meeting the students' desire for more games. It would be a mistake, however, to interpret the increase in the number of games as in any sense an evidence of reaction. In the case of Illinois, Purdue and Chicago, the vote was distinctly taken for one year only, and in case of the action of the board of athletics of the last-named institution,

the step was taken with the distinct understanding that the number of games to be played in 1909 reverted to five, unless subject again to change. Seven games (six, in the case of Chicago) do not make an extremely heavy schedule. It is, however, beyond question that if the increased number tends to reinstate the athletic mania reduction will inevitably follow. The Conference institutions are a unit in the determination to place intercollegiate athletics in the proper perspective of student interests.

The Drama

The recent depression in the theatrical world, due in a measure to the unsettled condition of the money market, and in a measure to the dearth of good plays, has given place suddenly to a feeling of optimism with its attendant activity. Depression was due to caution on the part of producers. The necessity for caution being removed, the demand for dates in the metropolitan theaters has swamped booking agents with an embarrassment of money making plays. Four excellent dramas, striking a note of intense human interest, head the long list of the month's output. The first, "Paid in Full," by Eugene Walter, is an *excellent* work, *skillfully depicting a* *city and*

a woman's sacrifice to hide his shame. Its element of heroism, of inherent nobility in the race, has won a triumph, and has placed its author, who has struggled for years against crushing odds, in the front rank of to-day's dramatists. Scarcely less successful is Charlotte Thompson's dramatization of "The Awakening of Helena Ritchie," for Margaret Anglin. Romantic in theme and alive with emotion, its logical plot travels rapidly with cumulative force to a splendid climax, affording the star a capital opportunity for intense repressed acting. Not so convincing in theme, or as excellent in workmanship as the two preceding plays, is David Graham Phillips' "Worth of a Woman." Yet it has afforded Katherine

CARING FOR THE UNEMPLOYED

BY

CHARLES RICHMOND HENDERSON,

PROFESSOR OF SOCIOLOGY, THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

THERE are always many unemployed; only when the army of Coxey is mobilized and the Sandlots howl do we comfortable people by warm firesides pay any attention to the fact that fires go out and hunger enters when wages cease in a hundred thousand homes. The insecurity of income among wage-earners is the ever imminent tragedy of life. The German government has recently issued a huge report showing the statistics for all civilized countries. At our last census, out of 29,073,233 persons, over ten years of age, engaged in gainful occupations, 6,468,964, or 22.3 per cent, had been out of work for some period during the year; and of these 3,291,211 were unemployed over four months. That year was one of commercial prosperity. A recent British writer thinks that of 7,781,000 male employees, the average unemployed during the past twenty years has been 1,221,270, or 15 per cent. Statistics being very imperfect, the estimates are largely guesses; but the ascertained facts are always serious enough without exaggeration.

Various methods have been used to discover the extent of unemployment in the United States during the winter months just passed; but there are no reliable data. We need a census department in perpetual motion to find and present the facts which bear directly on public duty. The government collects facts relating to the amount of grain in storage for the benefit of farmers and brokers; why not give the same care to the study and publication of facts about the supply of labor and the suffering of enforced idleness? Many are unemployed at certain seasons because of the nature of the industry and the state of the weather and demand for goods. With us the later part of winter is always a time of suffering for those who ever hover at the margin of want. The demoralized vagrants and loafers are

always with us; and now that they have some excuse they step into the stage light and make all sorts of wild demands. One effect of their diatribes is to make men forget the honest and self-respecting sufferers in the noise and resentment of popular clamor. Attacks on policemen and other representatives of order, and repression of fanatics and madmen, crazed by "red literature" and revolutionary speeches, dull the sensitiveness of even good men to innocent misery. It is difficult at such times to discriminate between tramps and those unemployed who are really eager to work.

Some indications of the true state of the case are found in the facts collected by labor bureaus and charitable agencies to guide the emergency policy this winter. The New York bulletin of labor for December reported that 92 trade unions, with 66,120 members, had 22,627 idle members, or 34.2 per cent of all; and of these 20,716 could not find work; a comparatively smaller number being unfit for work through illness. In December, 1906, only 12.8 per cent were idle.

The Municipal Lodging House in New York city, which has beds for 350 men, had an overflow of 100 per night during December, and these were entertained on the floor and benches of the Public Charities dock in a heated room. The Joint Application Bureau of the two great charitable societies of New York city had, during December, 2,954 calls from homeless persons in need, as compared with 751 in the same month of the previous year. In Chicago, with a vast industrial population of all nationalities and many floaters, the philanthropic organizations report a steady increase of demands, even through February. Early in January the agent of county relief reported 4,151 cases aided, as against 2,898 the previous year in December. The Bureau of Charities had 1,581 applications of all kinds,

against 1,335 in 1906. The Relief and Aid Society and Hebrew Charities had a similar experience.

The Visiting Nurse Association reported the number of appeals to be double that of 1906. The Illinois Free Employment Bureau found work for 863 persons in December, 1906, and for only 182 in 1907; such bureaus do the least business when they are most needed. The Municipal Lodging House in December, 1906, had 1,097 lodgers, and in the same period of 1907, had 11,200. The overflow went at first to police stations where the accommodations are shameful, and where a work test can not be applied. Later the shelters temporarily annexed to the Municipal Lodging House, and supported by private funds, were sufficient to accommodate all. Of 2,700 members of the Chicago Association of Commerce, 735 responded to inquiries by saying that they were employing 122,418 instead of 142,948, the same time last winter. Cities on the Atlantic coast report increase of demands for relief, but not in proportions to excite alarm or call for extraordinary methods. Chicago seems to suffer most on account of the nature of its industries and its population. No suffering is reported from agricultural districts. Indeed, the demand for labor there can not be met.

How has the emergency this year been met? First of all by some of the unemployed themselves, from their petty savings accounts. It seems impossible to discover the extent to which accounts have been drawn upon, because during the autumn panic much money was checked out from fear of failure of banks. Miss Mary E. Richmond tells us that neighborly and personal help has smoothed the rugged way for many. "A greater resource than all our charities put together is the neighborly help from individual to individual, extended quietly to those we already know." This is particularly true of the poor themselves; comfortable people have few real acquaintances among unskilled laborers, and employers do not know their employees.

In some occupations the trade unions have stood as a bulwark against distress, alms-taking and lowering of wages. Where it was necessary or possible they have paid out of their funds for the relief of unemployed members, lest they

be tempted to demoralize wage rates under fear of starvation.

Public and private relief has generally met the situation, so far as charity can help, through ordinary channels. Never before had philanthropy so large a body of expert servants as this year, and benevolent persons have learned to rely on them. Hysterical persons have done what they could to demoralize regular system by giving right and left without special knowledge, records or coöperation. Swindlers of all shades have taken advantage of the excitement to extract money from kind persons who would not take time and pains to telephone to the central office of organized charity. But in general, the organized charities of cities have simply extended their agencies, increased their staff of paid and voluntary visitors, worked their force longer hours, raised more money by a sober but earnest appeal to the public, and by systematic canvas. Never before in the history of American charity was the value of trained service so thoroughly demonstrated on a large scale. In former years mayors of certain cities have sought to raise funds in competition with regular societies and sometimes have through the police turned the gifts thus raised to private political advantage, and with demoralizing results. The police have not the training for distribution of charitable relief. This year, in Chicago at least, the police have been authorized to give emergency relief and then hand the needy person over to benevolent organizations for permanent treatment.

But after all was done, suffering was inevitable. No one will ever know how many persons, especially little children and the feeble, have perished from insufficient food, clothing and fuel. No one dies of starvation in this country; many die of "starvation diseases."

Much unemployment at all times is due to sickness, accident and invalidism, or old age. A system of industrial insurance would provide needed income at such times and the time seems ripe for a hearing before the American people on this subject. Unemployment insurance has been tried in Switzerland and some German cities, but no good system has yet been worked out. Our trade unions have thus far done best in this direction.

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CENTRAL PLAZA, PANAMA CITY, ON A SUNDAY MORNING

State of Maine, and over four times that of New Jersey, embracing 32,280 square miles and containing a miscellaneous population of three hundred and sixty-one thousand inhabitants: Whites of Spanish and other descents, Indians, Negroes and many of mixed nationalities, the dominat-

ing and controlling factor being the commercial element residing in Panama and Colon.

To the eastward a large part of the territory of the Republic of Panama is under the practical control of the San Blas Indians, one of the few tribes of natives

A further stimulus in this direction will be caused by the large number of active Americans attracted by the construction of the Panama Canal, not only as direct employees of the United States Government engaged on the work, but in connection with the collateral and auxiliary trade relations necessitated thereby. Many of these people will find their future destiny as residents of the Panama Republic, and their predominating influence will no doubt result in the growth of a warm and lasting friendship between the inhabitants of the Republic of Panama and the United States. It will also tend to promote future profitable trade relations with all South American countries.

The present treaty between the United States and the Republic of Panama provides for a protectorate which practically

gives the United States not only the power of intervening to repel invasion and repress local disorders, but also guarantees that the United States will assume the responsibility for the internal and foreign peace of the country. What the final outcome will be, and whether or not a closer relationship will eventually exist between the United States and the Republic of Panama depends largely upon the inclination and desire of the people of that country, which may result in annexation at some future time.

It does not require a prophetic mind or great foresight to predict the day when the Republic of Panama will support a population of several million happy and contented people, profitably engaged in the development of its abundant natural resources.

COLONIALISM

CAN WE GIVE UP OUR COLONIES?

BY

HARRY PRATT JUDSON

PRESIDENT OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

This article by President Judson should be read in connection with the two preceding articles in the series by Mr. Bryan and Mr. Willis. The importance of the colonial question is every day more evident, and unless we mistake, is likely to come even more to the front during the presidential campaign.

considering the question whether the United States can give up colonies one must of course assume that the free assent of this country is implied. France, Spain and Great Britain have had colonies wrested from them by force of arms. The same fate might come to the United States, although it seems probable that a war in which the republic should finally be worsted would be a struggle of no mean magnitude and one in which the loss would not be confined to one belligerent only. At present, however, we are not concerned with such contingencies, but

rather with a consideration of the circumstances which might lead to a voluntary withdrawal of our government from the control of certain colonies.

That we have colonial dependencies at present is beyond question. That we ought to have them, that the genius of our political system is in accord with colonial control, is strenuously denied by some American publicists. Their argument from the Declaration of Independence and from the Constitution rests on quite simple fallacies. That all men are born equal, that they are endowed by nature with certain inalienable rights, and that all just governments rest on the consent of the governed, are generalities which

sound very well in a political manifesto or in popular oratory. But when it is attempted to apply them in practical law, every one of these dicta has to be explained and qualified and limited. No one in the Congress of 1776 understood them to be true in an unlimited sense. No public law has ever embodied them in an unlimited sense. No unlimited application of them has ever been made or can be made anywhere. The Whigs of the American Revolution did not for a moment hold that negro slaves were born equal before the law with white men. Not one of the thirteen colonies regarded suffrage as an inalienable right of all men; the voting qualifications in many of the states were very rigid.

There never has been a moment since the Constitution was adopted when the United States has not governed communities without their consent and without giving them a share in governing the republic. The system of territories was coeval with the Constitution itself, and land inhabited by aliens was acquired by purchase when government under the Constitution had barely entered on its second decade. We promised to make states from the Northwest territory, to be sure, and we have done it. We have agreed in certain treaties by which we have acquired territory to admit the inhabitants to all the rights and privileges of American citizens, but only when we regard it as practicable in accordance with our best interests. New Mexico and Arizona have been territorial dependencies for a half century. The question on which their admission as a state turns is their fitness to share in the general government, and if they do not convince the Congress of such fitness, territories they will remain until the end of time.

So far as the legal right of the United States to acquire and to govern populated lands is concerned there is no longer room for doubt. The Supreme Court has spoken too often on this subject for controversy in the opposite sense to be maintained successfully.

But setting aside the legal question there remains that of equity. Is it just that one people shall govern another? Is it in accordance with American ideals *that any community should not decide its own destinies in its own way?*

The abstract doctrine that every aggregation of people has a right to unmolested liberty of self-government can not safely be reduced to practice. Experience has led nations to a very different ground.

The development of political civilization has made clear the general sense of a mutual international obligation to maintain public order as the prime condition of peace and progress. Order must first of all be maintained within every community. Then each community must keep the peace with others. This implies that within each land life and property are measurably safe, that the peace of nations is kept, that no people are a source of trouble and danger to their neighbors, that aliens, provided that they do no harm, may freely travel and reside in any state. These are the fundamental principles of the order and prosperity of the world. It is only from the observance of such rules of conduct that modern life has emerged from the confusion and distress of the Middle Ages.

No doubt perfection has not yet been attained. Life and property are not absolutely secure in all parts of the United States, and international wars are by no means abrogated. Still in the main civilized nations observe these principles in their broad lines. There may be feud murders in Kentucky and lawless mobs in New Orleans. But even so, a law-abiding man would not hesitate to feel comparatively safer in the United States than in Morocco.

Backward civilizations neglect such standards. Lawlessness is the rule rather than the exception. The life and property of aliens are not secure, and this is not an occasional circumstance but a normal condition. Ignorance or inattention to the principles of preventive medicine results in pestilence which may easily be disseminated abroad. International frontiers are not sacred, and dwellers on the other side of the line are exposed to danger from irresponsible and uncontrolled raiders. Such a community becomes a source of annoyance which in the end can not be endured, an international nuisance which may justifiably be abated by armed force.

It is such causes which have led to the establishment of protectorates and to colonial annexations. The corsairs of Algiers and of Tunis were for generations a

scourge to commerce, until French military force mastered their haunts. Great Britain has substituted the *pax Britannica* for the age-long welter of bloodshed and misrule in India. The Zulu savages are kept under control by British power, and Russia in Central Asia has put law above the restlessness of Turcoman robbers. In Cuba the United States insists that there shall not be perennial revolution and that the island shall not be a constant menace as a source of yellow fever.

With all its shortcomings civilization on the whole has enormously added to the peace, order and prosperity of the world by compelling unwilling obedience to modern rules of international safety, in total disregard of the alleged rights of local communities to "live their own life in their own way." In short, the great nations have instinctively perceived that the rights of mankind take precedence of the rights of individual groups. The right to self-government, in other words, does not exist apart from a correlative obligation on the part of each community to be an orderly and innocuous member of international society.

The colonies with which we are concerned are lands with a considerable population and subject to an external sovereignty. This is the legal status of Canada and of South Africa, it is practically the status of British India, it is the actual status of the Philippine Islands. Were Canada immediately contiguous to the British islands there is little doubt that the Canadians would promptly be admitted to share in the government of the United Kingdom, as Oklahoma has recently been admitted to a part in the government of the United States. Great distance from the mother country, however, and attendant diversity of economic interest, have thus far prevented the federation of the Greater Britain from being formed. In consequence Canada has a degree of autonomy little short of independence, and it is on the whole merely race difference which has kept the Cape Colony and India, each in its degree, from a similar freedom.

Canada has a population substantially homogeneous with that of Great Britain itself, the Cape Colony has an element to a certain extent discordant in the Dutch colonists, while India is radically diverse

and apparently incapable of assimilation with European social and political standards. In Fiji, in Basutoland and in Zululand the native people are not only remote from European ideals but are distinctly lower in intelligence, and in Africa so much lower that there seems little likelihood of great attainment of political possibility within a measurable time. Accordingly, in the interest both of the natives and of their neighbors in these lands, a firm control is exercised by the British sovereign power, and only such amount of local autonomy is permitted as is not inconsistent with general peace and order.

These policies are the result of long British experience, and in essentials we can not vary far from similar action. If one of our colonies contains people of a low grade of intelligence and of scanty civilizable possibilities we can hardly fail to keep them under firm control, as for so many years we have had to do with American Indians. If on the other hand they seem capable of real progress, it surely is our duty to aid that progress in all reasonable ways until self-government is safe, safe for themselves and for others. In the Philippines such conditions seem to exist. While many groups in those islands are apparently on a par with our Indians, yet the Malaysians give evidence of educability. To abandon them to themselves now, with only ten per cent of the people politically capable, would mean chaos at home and conflict abroad.

It is idle, in the gratification of an abstract philosophical theory, to consider thus abandoning the obligation which we have assumed. When by general education, not only in the schools but in the practice of industry and of self-government, the people of the islands have adequately proved their competence to form an orderly, self-respecting and safe member of the world's body politic, then we can give up our sovereign control in the Philippines. It is not to be expected that such status can be reached at an early day. Until that day comes the United States has a duty in those islands which it will not lightly abandon. It is the part of honor and justice to the Philippines and of wisdom in international relations to carry through to the end what we have begun.

PSYCHICAL RESEARCH

BY

SIR OLIVER LODGE.

Sir Oliver Lodge is one of the greatest living physicists. Of late years he has been very prominent in the Psychical Research Society, and has written extensively on immortality and other religious subjects. The present article is a good summary of his attitude toward the investigation of phenomena sometimes called occult but more generally known as psychical.

business of science is not belief but investigation. Belief is both the elude to and the outcome of knowledge. If fact or a theory has *prima facie* case made out for it, subsequent investigation is necessary to examine and extend it. The object of investigation is the ascertainment of law, and to this process there is no end.

What, for instance, is the object of observing and recording earthquakes and arranging delicate instruments to detect the slightest indication of earth tremor? Every one knows that earthquakes exist, there is no skepticism to overcome in their case; even people who have never experienced them are quite ready to believe in their occurrence. Investigation into earthquakes and the whole of the motile occurrences in the earth's crust is not in the least for the purpose of confirming faith, but solely for the better understanding of the conditions and nature of the phenomena — for the ascertainment of law.

So it is in every branch of science. At first, among new phenomena careful observation of fact is necessary, as when Tycho Brahe made measurements of the motion of the planets and accumulated a store of careful observations. Then came the era of hypothesis, and Kepler waded through guess after guess, testing them pertinaciously to see if any one of them would fit all the facts, the result of his *strenuous life-work* being the three great

laws which for all time bear his name. Then came the majestic deductive epoch of Newton, welding the whole into one comprehensive system; subsequently to be enriched and extended by the labors of Lagrange and Laplace; after which the current of scientific inquiry was diverted for a time into other less adequately explored channels.

Not at all times is everything equally ripe for inquiry. There is a phase, or it may be a fashion, even in science. Geographical exploration was the feature of Elizabeth's time. Astronomical inquiry succeeded it. Optics and chemistry were the dominating sciences of the early part of the nineteenth century, heat and geology of the middle, electricity and biology of the latter portion. Not yet has psychology had its phase of popularity. It is a subject of special interest, and therefore perhaps of special danger. In that respect it is like other studies of the operations of mind, like a scientific enumeration of the phenomena of religion, like the study of anything which in its early stages looks mysterious and incomprehensible. Training and some admixture of other studies are necessary for its healthy investigation.

The assuring ourselves as to facts is one of our duties, and it is better to hesitate too long over a truth than to welcome an error, for a false gleam may lead us far astray unless soon detected. Another duty is the making and testing of hypotheses, so as gradually to make a map of the district and be able to explain it to future

travelers. We have to combine the labors of Tycho with those of Kepler, and thus prepare the way for a future Newton who has not yet appeared above the psychical horizon.

To be scientific does not mean to be infallible, but it means being clear and honest, and as exact as we know how to be. In difficult investigations pioneers have always made some mistakes; they have no immediate criterion or infallible touchstone to distinguish the more true from the less true, but if they record their results with anxious care and scrupulous honesty and painstaking precision, their mistakes are only less valuable to the next generation than their partially true generalizations. Sometimes it turns out, after a century or so, that mistakes made by early pioneers were no such thorough errors as had been thought, that they had an element of truth in them all the time, as if discoverers were endowed with a kind of prophetic insight whereby they dimly glimpsed theories and truths which it would take several generations of workers to disencumber and bring clearly to light.

The term "science" was not always respectable. To early ears it sounded almost as the term witchcraft or magic sounded, it was a thing from which to warn young people. It led to atheism and to many other abominations. It was an unholy prying into the secrets of Nature which were meant to be hid from our eyes; it was a thing against which the Church resolutely set its face, a thing for which it was ready, if need were, to torture or to burn those unlucky men of scientific genius who were born before their time. I mean no one church in particular, I mean the religious world generally. Science was a thing allied to heresy, a thing to hold aloof from, to shudder at, and to attribute to the devil.

The recognition of science was not, however, immediate and universal. Dislike of it, and mistrust of the spread of scientific inquiry, persisted well into the Victorian era, and is not wholly extinct to this day. I do not refer to investigation into affairs of the mind — that is unpopular and mistrusted still, and still good people are found who will attribute anything unusual to the devil, and warn young people from it — but I refer to some slight traces of lingering prejudice against the ortho-

dox sciences of chemistry and physics and biology. They have achieved their foothold, they are regarded with respect, people do not disdain to make money by means of them when the opportunity is forthcoming, but they are not really liked. They are only admitted to schools on sufferance, as an inferior grade of study, suited to the backward and ignorant; they are not regarded with affection and enthusiasm, as revelations of Divine working, to be reverently studied nor as subjects in which the youth of a nation may be wholesomely and solidly trained.

Still more is the time not quite ripe for psychical research. Pioneers must expect hard knocks, the mind of a people can change only slowly; and until the mind of the people is changed new truths born before their time must suffer the fate of other untimely births, and the prophet who preaches them must expect to be mistaken for a useless fanatic, of whom every age has always had too many. He must be content to be literally or metaphorically put to death, as part of the process of the regeneration of the world. The dislike and mistrust and disbelief in the validity or legitimacy of psychical research is familiar.

Why should not psychical investigation lead to practical results? Are we satisfied with our treatment of criminals? Are we as civilized people content to grow a perennial class of habitual criminals, and to keep them in check only by devices appropriate to savages; hunting them, flogging them, locking them up, exterminating them? It is unwise and unsentimental to leave prisoners merely to the discipline of wardens and to the preaching of chaplains. That is not the way to attack a disease of the body politic. I have no full-blown treatment to suggest, but I foresee that there will be one in the future. Society will not be content always to pursue these methods of barbarism; the resources of civilization are not really exhausted, though for centuries they have appeared to be.

The criminal demands careful study on the psychical side, and remedy or palliation will be a direct outcome of one aspect of our researches. The influence of the unconscious or subliminal self, the power of suggestion, the influence of one mind over another, the phenomena of so-called

"possession," these are not academic or scientific facts alone; they have a deep practical bearing, and sooner or later it must be put to the proof. The establishment of cases of real prediction, not mere inference, is so vital and crucial a test of something not yet recognized by science that it is worth every effort to make its evidence secure. Another thing on which I should value experiments is the detection of slight traces of telepathic power in quite normal persons, in the average man for instance, or rather more likely, in the average child. The power of receiving telepathic impressions *may* be a rare faculty existing only in a few individuals and in them fully developed; but it is equally possible, and more likely, that what we see in them is but an intensification of a power which exists in every one as a germ or nucleus.

If such should be the fact, it behooves us to know it; and its recognition would do more to spread a general belief in the fact of telepathy — a belief by no means as yet universally or even widely spread — than almost anything else. The method that has been suggested is to offer to a percipient the choice of one out of two things, and to see whether in multitudes of events the predetermination of a bystander as to which shall be chosen, exerts any influence whatever on the result. Many devices can be made for carrying this out, but experiments of greater interest and novelty will be made if the devices are left to individual ingenuity and experience. Leisure, and patience, and system, and industry, are the requisites: and if I do not myself practice what I preach in this and other particulars, it is because whatever I may lack of the others, I am at present conspicuously lacking in the first of these essentials.

One of the things I would impress upon persons who being supernormally gifted may expect to experience facts and sensations worth recording, is that too much care can not be expended in getting the statements exact. Exact in every particular, especially as regards the matter of *time*. In recording a vision or an audition or some other impression corresponding to some event elsewhere, there is a horrible tendency to try to coax the facts to fit some half-fledged preconceived theory and to make the coincidence in time exact.

Such distortions of truth are misleading and useless. What we want to know is exactly how the things occurred, not how the impressionist would have liked them to occur, or how he thinks they ought to have occurred. If people attach any importance to their own predilection concerning events in the universe, they can set them forth in a footnote for the guidance of any one who hereafter may think of starting a universe on his own account. But such speculations are of no interest to us who wish to study and understand the universe as it is.

If the event preceded the impression, by all means let us know it, and perhaps some one may be able to detect some meaning in the time-interval, when a great number of similar instances are compared hereafter. If the impression preceded the event, by all means let us know that too, and never let the observation be suppressed from a ridiculous idea that such anticipation is impossible. Nor let us exclude attested psychical phenomena from a historical record, on any similar ground of impossibility. We want to learn what is possible, not to have our minds made up beforehand and distort or blink the facts to suit.

If the correspondence in time is exact, then let future students be able to ascertain that also from the record; but let not the recorder make any note about "allowing for difference of longitude" or anything of that kind, unless indeed he is an astronomer or some one who thoroughly understands all about "time." Arithmetic of that sort can be left to those who subsequently disentangle and criticize the results. The observer may of course amuse himself in that and other ways privately, but nothing of it should appear in the record. That should be accurate, and cold-blooded, and precise. Sentences indicating contemporary emotion, in so far as that is part of the facts to be recorded, are entirely in place; but ejaculations of subsequent emotion, speculation as to the cause, or moralization as to the meaning, are out of place. It may be said that these do no harm, and can easily be ignored by a future student. That is so in one sense, but their atmosphere is rather apt to spoil the record, to put the recorder into an unscientific frame of mind, and even when they have biased him no whit,

to suggest to a subsequent reader that they may have biased him, and so discount unfairly the value of his record.

With respect to the important subject of possible prediction, on which our ideas as to the ultimate nature of time will so largely depend, every precaution should be taken to put far from us the temptation or the possibility of improving the original record after the fact to which it refers has occurred, if it ever does occur; and to remember that though we have done nothing of the sort, and are in all respects honest, and known to be honest and truthful, yet the contrary may be surmised by posterity or by strangers or foreigners who did not know us; and even our friends may fancy that we did more than we were aware of, in some access of somnambule or automatic trance.

Automatic writers, for instance, must be assumed open to this suspicion, unless they take proper precautions and deposit

copies of their writings in some inaccessible and responsible custody; because the essence of their phenomena is that the hand writes what they themselves are not aware of, and so it is an easy step for cautious critics to maintain that it may also have written *when* they were unaware of it.

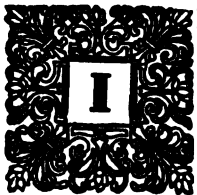
If there is any object worthy the patient and continued attention of humanity, it is surely these great and pressing problems of whence, what, and whither, that have occupied the attention of prophet and philosopher since time was. The discovery of a new star, or of a marking on Mars, or of a new element, or of a new extinct animal or plant, is interesting; surely the discovery of a new human faculty is interesting, too. The discovery of "telepathy" has laid the way open to the discovery of much more. Our aim is nothing less than the investigation and better comprehension of human faculty, human personality and human destiny.



THE ART MOVEMENT IN CHICAGO

BY

JAMES SPENCER DICKERSON



IF Boston is "a state of mind," Chicago is a "movement." Boston is popularly supposed to be swayed by pure reason alone, Chicago is accused by the thoughtless of yielding to no

emotions save those expressed in terms of lard and dollars. Of course, neither opinion is entirely correct. But this much is true, at least, that the great metropolis on Michigan's shores is characterized by tremendous energy, whether that energy

be applied to trade extension or to the creation of a Columbian Exposition. The mythical individual, always quoted in superficial descriptions of Chicago, who declares that when the city really sets about it, it "will make art hum," in some degree is really typical of the true Chicagoan. For Chicago believes in things that possess throbbing virility, whether they affect the commercial, the educational, or the esthetic life of the city. The Art Institute is more school than museum. Its collections are subordinated to the growth of artists. Its old masters and

sculpture casts are made to serve as inspiration to youthful Raphaels and budding Michael Angelos rather than merely to afford pleasure to sightseers. To refer to the art movement in Chicago is, then, in harmony with the spirit of the city and the facts. There is an art movement in Chicago — and it moves.

This art movement is discoverable both among the people and among the artists. It was not by chance that a well-equipped art school, which last year enrolled two thousand five hundred students, drawn from every portion of the central West, was founded a generation ago. It was not accident that secured for Chicago the noble Lincoln statues by St. Gaudens. The magnificent and unprecedented Ferguson bequest, which devotes the income of \$1,000,000 to sculptural adornment of parks and streets, was not given thoughtlessly or by haphazard, any more than were John D. Rockefeller's millions poured into the treasury of the University of Chicago without profound conviction as to the city's strategic position in the country and its power to impress the life of an inland empire.

Back of the puffing commercialism of the city, or, possibly, notwithstanding the omnipresent strife for gain, is — as there has been for nearly half a century — a worthy, persistent determination to rise above the lower levels of barter to the higher planes of things beautiful. Sometimes this determined effort to prevent the capture of the city by the Philistines has been manifested by a group of unselfish, unpaid and undaunted men and women who wrote and worked and pleaded for its higher life. Sometimes the merchants and brokers who were piling up profits in the morning devoted their afternoons to committee work, board meetings and picture-buying. It is a significant and suggestive fact that from the beginning of the art movement in Chicago the men who gave their thousands to the purchase of notable pictures such as were shown in the annual exhibitions of the old Interstate Exposition, and to the founding of the Art Institute, were active members of the board of trade. Although many of the purchased paintings were produced in Paris or "made in Germany," they were, in the main, worthy. They were the basis of numerous private collections which are

celebrated in the world of art. Scarcely a notable American exhibition of the works of any of the masters is held nowadays which does not catalogue pictures owned by Chicago collectors. Although these earlier selections of local picture-buyers were chiefly the works of foreign painters, they have played an important part in the development of the popular taste and judgment. Pioneer artists of Chicago undoubtedly suffered for lack of patronage, because men of means followed too slavishly in the footsteps of transatlantic collectors, but at least this course provided a high standard. Doubtless it was better to cover the walls of the city's drawing-rooms with good Barbizon canvases and old Dutch masterpieces than to buy commonplace productions simply because they had been painted by brushes bought on Wabash Avenue. Happily the day has passed when in Chicago a picture is necessarily valued in inverse ratio to the distance of the artist's studio from its purchaser's home. Happily, too, Chicago artists, in rapidly increasing numbers, are offering paintings and sculptures worthy of comparison with those of their fellows across the water.

One of the most helpful influences in the art movement of Chicago has been the intelligent effort of the numerous women's clubs of the city. At first this effort found expression in study which devoted itself chiefly to the history of art. But gradually, either because the study led to knowledge, or because women almost invariably gravitate toward the practical application of theories, or both, the women's clubs have taken an active part in the art uplift. And this aid has been applied by actual coöperation with incarnate art. At first individual women's clubs opened exhibitions of the works of local artists with prizes for excellence and occasional purchases. With the union of the Chicago Art Association and the Municipal Art League in 1901 came the federation of over fifty women's clubs with the latter organization and the award of annual prizes, the yearly purchase of some work of art, the formation of a municipal art gallery, and the systematic study and criticism of exhibitions. The value of such sympathetic and practical coöperation can hardly be overestimated in prophesying the development of a

A further stimulus in this direction will be caused by the large number of active Americans attracted by the construction of the Panama Canal, not only as direct employees of the United States Government engaged on the work, but in connection with the collateral and auxiliary trade relations necessitated thereby. Many of these people will find their future destiny as residents of the Panama Republic, and their predominating influence will no doubt result in the growth of a warm and lasting friendship between the inhabitants of the Republic of Panama and the United States. It will also tend to promote future profitable trade relations with all South American countries.

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COLONIALISM

CAN WE GIVE UP OUR COLONIES?

BY

HARRY PRATT JUDSON

PRESIDENT OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

This article by President Judson should be read in connection with the two preceding articles in the series by Mr. Bryan and Mr. Willis. The importance of the colonial question is every day more evident, and unless we mistake, is likely to come even more to the front during the presidential campaign.

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rather with a consideration of the circumstances which might lead to a voluntary withdrawal of our government from the control of certain colonies.

That we have colonial dependencies at present is beyond question. That we ought to have them, that the genius of our political system is in accord with colonial control, is strenuously denied by some American publicists. Their argument from the Declaration of Independence and from the Constitution rests on quite simple fallacies. That all men are born equal, that they are endowed by nature with certain inalienable rights, and that all just governments rest on the consent of the governed, are generalities which

simultaneously. New clothes and presents, feasts and firecrackers, and the excitement of gambling and of hunting up your debtors without meeting any of your creditors, unite to furnish relief from the daily grind. In hot weather all who can take a siesta of two hours in the after-

lot of the Chinese woman: work, seasoned with a little gossip; and of a dozen other sides of Chinese life, but there is no space for it. China has many, very many, serious faults, but what this race will do under conditions encouraging individual initiative and expression, is almost beyond

THE PRIVATE CAR OF A CHINESE MAGNATE

noon; and there are weddings and funerals, and, best of all, theatrical exhibitions similar to a country fair. These latter are the occasion of a general holiday, the contiguous villages turning out *en masse*. And one must never forget that the Chinese are great feasters!

One would like to speak of education, of wages, of marriage, of morals, and of the

speculation. China, with a conscience, can do almost anything. Who is to give it to her, and when and how? New life must come from somewhere, apparently from without, for China bows at the shrine of the Has-Been. She is clinging to a creed outworn: when she gives it up, what then? There is no answer in sight save Christianity.

ELY OF WISCONSIN

BY

JOSEPH MEDILL PATTERSON



THE story of the life of Ely of Wisconsin is worth knowing because it epitomizes the story of economic thought in America during the past twenty-five years.

When Ely was an undergraduate, political economy was, to all intents, an untaught study in this country. Five years later when he began to teach, he was first unnoticed, then patronized, then reviled by the orthodox

professors. By 1885, when he helped found the Economic Association with the frank purpose of overthrowing the orthodox professors, they had learned to dread him, while young instructors and associate professors heeded and followed him. When, finally, the doctrines of the old school were erased he became one of the most eminent and influential men in his profession. To-day in the judgment of his peers there is no one who ranks ahead of him among American economists.

Richard Theodore Ely was born fifty-

two years ago on a farm in Chautauqua County, New York. As a boy he did the ordinary farm chores, went to the public schools and the state normal school. His people, of old New England stock, had been college bred for generations. Accordingly the youth was sent to Columbia in the class of '76. He helped pay his own way by tutoring. The course at that time was prescribed throughout and Ely, if he then had a bent, was unable to display it. There were fifty in his class, but he won the fellowship in letters which carried him to Germany to sit for four years under the greatest teachers and thinkers in the world. His purpose was to study philosophy. He was fond of analysis, fond of getting at underlying causes.

Ely had no special interest in political economy. Indeed he had never had a chance to become interested. At Columbia but one term was given to the subject. A single text-book was used, "Mrs. Fawcett's Political Economy for Beginners." At the end of each chapter of this primer was a printed set of questions and answers which the class learned by heart, then came to recitation parrot-crammed. But after entering the University of Halle in Prussia, Ely received a new idea of political economy. He was fascinated by the lovable personality as well as the brilliant lectures of Professor Conrad, who opposed to the cold and fatalistic teachings of the *laissez faire* school, then dominant in England and America, the warm humanitarianism of hope. More Americans have studied under Conrad than under any other of the German teachers.

The next year Ely traveled to Heidelberg, and definitely taking political economy under Carl Kneiss as his major study, relegated philosophy to the position of minor. Kneiss was a great, big man with a voice that boomed and a powerful laugh. He believed vociferously in "freedom to learn and freedom to teach," and made his students promise always to keep that freedom for themselves.

At Heidelberg Ely obtained his doctor's degree; and honorable mention for his thesis in spite of its imperfect German. The next year he went to Geneva to pick up French, and, incidentally to become acquainted with Russian refugees and nihilists. In 1879 he went to the University of Berlin and attended the

courses of Adolph Wagner, a giant of a man, built on the Kneiss order and with the same outlook on life. Among the political economists of the universities of the world to-day, Wagner, now over seventy, is with little dissent looked up to as master, as the greatest single force.

Ely returned to America in 1880 and put in a year as a newspaper man. Then he took charge of the political economy department of Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore. During his first years there, he found the sledding hard. Three men in America stood out as leaders of economic thought: William G. Sumner of Yale, Arthur Perry of Williams, and David H. Wells, unattached. These three were regular contributors to the *Nation*, edited by E. Lawrence Godkin, who echoed, in his editorials, a constant Amen to the sayings of the big three. In the early eighties, in college and university life, the doctrines of these three men had achieved an overshadowing mastery. Even those teachers who dissented in the back corners of their understandings, hesitated to announce their dissent openly lest they should be swiftly branded with the damning phrase, "an unsound and shallow thinker." The business of political economists was to think correctly and profoundly. That was what they were paid for. By that they made their livelihood.

As well call a broncho-buster a weak rider as say a teacher of economics is a shallow, unsound thinker.

Sumner, Perry and Wells, who had then possessed, in their field, the power of excommunication, belonged to the *laissez faire* school. They believed that there were certain underlying laws which guided business and politics. These laws were fundamental and, like the axioms of geometry, unprovable. All proofs were built on them. Just as the axiom that "the whole is equal to the sum of its parts" is a geometrical truth in Africa, Asia and America, just as it was as true in 1907 B. C., as in 1907 A. D., so these fundamental laws in economics were true in all places, at all times, for all stages of society.

The chief of these laws was: "The best government is the least government." From this it was deduced that protection is always worse for a country than free

trade; that laws to protect workers from dangerous machinery, to prevent child and regulate woman labor, to limit hours, were but man's vain foredoomed attempts to oppose Nature's law of supply and demand. Labor unions, since they ran contrary to this same inexorable law, were not merely immoral but also silly.

College-bred men accepted these teachings with but a single exception. This exception concerned the matter of protection and free trade. Sons of manufacturers almost invariably turned protectionist despite their college training. Whatever the theory, they were for protection because they saw it meant dollars and cents to them. They voted for protection and they got it, and got rich through it. However, they were very faithful to the rest of the *laissez faire* teaching.

But at the same time the unions were forming, fighting, striking, negotiating, hunting scabs, picketing, being broken and reforming. The net result was that they won and maintained higher wages and shorter hours. And they didn't particularly care when the professors told them they were doing something economically impossible.

The evident failure of the facts of life to jibe with the theories of the big three began to be whispered behind the academic palm.

Ely, James, now president of the University of Illinois, and a few other young men came out boldly; declared that the big three were all wrong in their first premises; that the laws of commerce were not fixed, like axioms, but fluid and changeable; that what was a good thing for a country to-day might be extremely bad for it to-morrow; that the least government might be and often was the worst government; that it was the duty of society by law to protect its women and children from the cruelties of "supply and demand" and "free contract"; that laborers could get much better terms for themselves organized than unorganized.

These young men said that they belonged to the historical school, that the best way to find out economic laws was to observe economic happenings and then to reason back from effect to cause; and not as the other school did, to assume a few "*fundamental*" laws, and then to

seek rigidly to fit happenings into these laws. The historicalists made much of the many evidences that the daily happenings of life were refusing obstinately to respond to the laws proclaimed by Sumner, Perry and Wells.

But the young leaders of the new school had plenty of discouragement at first. They were moving against long tradition and firm authority. When Ely published his "History of the Labor Movement in America," there were many calls for his dismissal from Johns Hopkins. A fellow member of the faculty of that institution, the famous astronomer, Simon Newcomb, wrote in the *Nation* that a man who would publish such a subversive work was unfit to hold a professorship anywhere.

In 1885 Ely, James, Andrew D. White of Cornell, Woodrow Wilson, then of Bryn Mawr, and others started the American Economic Association. The first article stated:

"We regard the state as an educational and ethical agency whose positive aid is an indispensable condition of human progress. We hold that the doctrine of *laissez faire* is unsafe in politics and unsound in morals and that it suggests an inadequate explanation of the relations between the state and citizens."

The challenge was bold and the triumph surprisingly rapid. Youth would be served. Ely was secretary of the new society during its first seven years, and president in 1899 and 1901. The big three and their close followers did what they could to stem the new influence; but their day was past. To-day every economist of reputation in the country is a member of the association, with the single exception of Sumner of Yale. He belonged to the old guard which dies but does not surrender. He has given up economics, and now lectures at Yale on the customs of primitive peoples.

Ely's reputation continued to grow. He had drawn to Johns Hopkins for post-graduate courses a number of exceptionally gifted men. Among them were Woodrow Wilson, E. Benjamin Andrews, Dr. Albion W. Small, now of the University of Chicago; T. N. Carver and C. J. Bullock, now of Harvard; John Finley, now of City College, New York; Albert Shaw, of the *Review of Reviews*, and B.

H. Meyer, J. Turner, E. A. Ross and John R. Commons, now sitting with Ely on the University of Wisconsin faculty.

In 1892 Ely resigned from Johns Hopkins and went to the University of Wisconsin. In contrast with his own Columbia course in economics in the seventies with its single term, single text-book "for beginners" and single instructor, he now finds himself senior member of a department which includes six professors, four assistant professors and four instructors.

Professor Ely lives in Madison in a comfortable frame house on the very top of University Heights. From his porch he can see the three brilliant blue lakes which all but surround the town. Within a short walk is a library of one hundred and fifty thousand volumes. Ely is now working in collaboration with his former student, John R. Commons, on "A History of the Industrial Democratic Movement in America." This work has been in progress for three years. Its completion will require probably ten years more. It will appear in three forms; first, a documentary history, next an eight or ten volume affair, third a "short history" for popular use. He is contented with the work because he says that a true history of the industrial democratic movement in America is a true history of the country, and he expects to live to finish it.

His environment is beautiful, his work engrossing, his family life extremely happy. He does not seem a bit cast down by the fact that the State of Wisconsin pays him less than one of his '76 classmates pays his private chef, nor by the thought that if he saved for twenty years every cent of his pay he would not have enough money to buy a seat on the New York Stock Exchange. He is not depressed because the trainer of Harry Payne Whitney's racehorses has three or four times as large a salary. He is not envious of the great financiers who in a single day's effort on the Stock Exchange, by depressing or elevating stock quotations, have gained a thousand times as many dollars as he receives in a year. He understands better than these financiers themselves the whole scheme of magic whereby they accomplish their miracles. He remembers that Sumner, Wells and Perry seemed as secure in their intellectual eminence in 1885 when the American

Economic Association was formed, as the great magicians of finance seem secure today in their political and social eminence.

Professor Ely consented to give me an interview and spoke as follows: "There has been a revolution in thought in the universities in the country in the past twenty-five years. A revolution in action is bound to follow. By revolution, I mean a peaceful movement as in New Zealand and Australia."

"How does a change of thought in the universities affect thought throughout the country?" was asked.

"What is taught to the young men at the universities, they later teach the world from the stump, the legislative halls, the newspaper and magazine columns. What the universities think to-day, the country is apt to think to-morrow; what the country thinks to-morrow, it will do the day after."

"What do the economists, then, think to-day?"

"The great majority of them are distinctly progressive. I can not very well be more definite."

"What is your own program?"

"I believe that such natural resources as forests and mineral wealth should belong to the people; I believe that the community should own as fast as it can be prepared therefor, its highways or railroads as well as telegraph and parcels post; that labor unions should be legally encouraged in their efforts for shorter hours and higher wages; that inheritance and income taxes should be generally extended; and that child education should be substituted for child labor."

"Can you say whether, as a rule, your brother economists go as far as you do?"

"Well, some of the best of them go a good deal farther; many not as far. I fancy to-day I stand about at the mean point between the extremes."

"Then you have become more conservative than you were in your youth when you were considered so subversive and dangerous?"

"No; my views are more advanced today than they ever were, but the young fellows are overtaking me. That seems to be the law of life. The old order passeth away."

Professor Ely smiled and bowed me out.

ELLIS ISLAND AS SEEN BY THE CAMERA-MAN

BY

JULIAN A. DIMOCK

Illustrations on pages 337-342

IGNORA! Signora! Go up to the top of the stairs." It was one of the interpreters who spoke and, he added to an attendant, "Put the woman and the baby at the head of the line."

We were looking down the main stairway of the receiving room at Ellis Island, at the line of immigrants who were waiting to pass the medical examiners. Something had delayed the inspection and this row of people were standing where they were struck by the chilly blasts that swept up through the open doors. In speaking thus, the official voiced the attitude of the immigration authorities toward the arriving alien as I saw it during ten days of unattended observation.

A tale is current of an unscrupulous vender of pies who, years ago, refused to give change to a little immigrant boy who had purchased of his wares. That lonely boy then resolved that when he grew up he would put it out of the power of such men to prey on the newly landed foreigner. When President Roosevelt looked around for a man who would give the immigrant a square deal, he found this boy, now grown to man's estate, with official experience in the service, and appointed him Commissioner of Immigration at the Port of New York, "solely on merit." The literal accuracy of this story is immaterial. The spirit of it is true to-day. The personality of the Commissioner, thus appointed, permeates the department under his charge.

For nearly two weeks I watched the stream of human beings coming up the stairs and saw their treatment by the officials. Scarcely a *cruel* word did I hear

during the whole of that time. Once one of the interpreters relieved his feelings by a long-drawn-out "stupid," which sounded for all the world like a mother speaking to a provoking child. I watched the expression on the face of one of the inspectors as he tried to straighten out some slight irregularity in the papers of a woman who was at his desk. Although I was across the room, and heard not a single word, yet I was much impressed by his look of fatherly solicitude as he sought to temper the severity of our alien laws with kindness to the foreigner at our gateway. The interest of the immigrant was promoted so far as was compatible with justice to the country. During the interview the little baby toddled away from his mother, and the gentle way in which he was romped back to her side but completed the picture of applied Christianity.

One day while I was there a woman lost her money before she reached the inspectors. The \$70 was a fortune to her and its loss meant the closing of the Gates of Hope. When her tale was known, the officials took up a collection to enable her to pass.

"They often try this trick, but this woman is telling the truth and really did lose her money," said one of them to me. At another time, the noon hour found the room filled with immigrants awaiting inspection. One woman, with two small children, was waiting for her husband who chanced to be farther down the line. The motherly air with which one of the matrons swooped down on the group and carried it off to lunch but emphasized the feeling of humanity which I had now come to expect at Ellis Island.

The care of the women extends beyond the portals of entrance. I saw one at-

tractive-faced young woman bathed in tears, but the adamantine officials refused to allow her to change her plans and to seek a situation in New York city, where she had no friends. She was consigned to cousins in Pennsylvania, and to Pennsylvania she was sent.

Optimistic is the receiving and examining department; pessimistic, the department of deportation. One official spoke to me of the lies that are told the Special Inquiry Boards, often to enable the immigrant to enter this country and begin over again a life that has failed — if we take a charitable view of the case.

In one department stalks tragedy — grim and unrelenting. And yet I wonder if some of the charity of Him who accepted the ministrations of Mary Magdalen might not have served to save many a human being from misery without serious threat to the morals of the community. For I remember the home where childish prattle in the kitchen, tolerated by the liberal-minded home-maker, led to an honorable and happy marriage. At Ellis Island the subject is viewed from the standpoint of physical inability to work, and the certainty that, too often, the doors of honest labor will be closed in the face of the applicant. The husband must be able to provide for his wife and child; the lover must be made to go through the marriage ceremony and to be able to care for the family, or the department of deportation is put in charge of the case. The fate of the deported is often of such sadness that all possible consideration should be exercised by the department.

My work with the camera took many days, for I was determined to have the chosen types representative. I tried to select an equal number of good and bad. For one whole day I devoted myself to photographing nothing but the poorest specimens that I could find, resolutely leaving all the pretty girls and fine-looking men out of it. After a week I gave up the attempt, for there were no bad types, or so few as to be negligible. A cherished example of the undesirable developed into a picture of the conventional Christ-head. Thereafter I devoted myself to typical people without regard to character, but always I avoided the best-looking ones lest the result compare too

favorably with the work at a Fifth Avenue studio.

I made amusing mistakes. After exhausting my knowledge of the sign language in directing the posing of one of the men, he asked me in English, "Are my eyes right now?" Further talk with him — not with signs, however — disclosed the fact that he was an Iowan farmer who had returned to his old home for a bride and was now bringing her with him to their new home in this country. When he introduced me to her, I no longer wondered that he went abroad for a wife.

A stately white-haired patriarch stood at the head of one group. An intellectual, refined, distinguished personality was proclaimed by every line that seamed his face, by every glance from his kindly eyes, and by the very attitude of the man. Inquiry of the inspectors revealed that these were second-cabin passengers whose relatives had not met them at the steamer. They were now awaiting, at the Island, a reply to the telegram announcing their arrival.

The officials were as pleasant to me as to their charges, with their greetings of "Well, son, how goes it this morning?" to the "For God's sake keep at it and get through. I am responsible for all these people and it makes the shivers run down my back whenever you take one outside the railing!" in answer to my suggestion that I absent myself on a day which promised to be full to overflowing. Quickly I learned which interpreter could best beguile the pretty girls into posing with his, "Will you go with him to the window?" "No, Mademoiselle, he asks you because you are so pretty!" I discovered which could prevail upon the aristocratic-looking men, and which the rank and file. To one it was "Come!" and he came, to another "This gentleman wishes to take your picture, will you permit him?"

The reception was as varied as the sifter. The "Count," as we called him, was profuse in expressions of his appreciation of the honor done him. He told me that he was "a portrait paintah, himself." He borrowed a pencil to give me his address. After returning to his place he discovered that he still had the pencil. Officials were waved aside as he hastened across the room, and with a courtly bow and many apologies gave it back to me.

The Hebrews retained their air of submission. One, on his return to his companion, was asked, "What did he want, Jacob?" With a Hebraic shrug of his shoulders he replied, "I know not, Isaac; he took my picture and that was all!"

In the railroad waiting-room I saw a homesick man forget his loneliness in the abandon of playing his fiddle. Gone were the four walls of the building, forgotten the medical examiners and the dreaded inspectors! The spell of the music again brought before him the vine-clad hills of sunny Italy.

Even in the detention room apprehensions are momentarily forgotten. In one department the beat of a drum banished dread of their fate from volatile people who swayed to the time. With the women, chatting, sewing and quiet games whiled away the hours. The lottery of the future contains prizes for some but blanks for many. Some are detained for the sailing of the steamer that is to bear them back whence they came. A few await the return of sick children from the hospital, or a message that they will never come back. Others are held for the coming of friends who failed to meet them at their arrival.

I had difficulty in maintaining a proper perspective. Continually I found myself forgetting that these people were not simply human beings, members of the human brotherhood who by a mere freak of fate were born in a foreign clime, but beings apart whom we must consider and weigh before we admit them to the privileges of the country. As the way to the ferry led me through doors which bore the legend "Push. To New York," and on the other

side I passed through doors on which was printed "Pull," I thought with sorrow of the significance of the words. Later, on the subway, it happened that I headed the line of passengers who wished to leave the train at Fourteenth Street. On the platform was a dense mass of well-dressed, well-appearing men and women. Not a motion to make a passage did I see. I stopped bewildered, for I had just left a region where courtesy was the rule. But fortunately the man behind me was a citizen of the metropolis and, with his shoulder at my back, we went through that crowd which melted before the brute force to which it was accustomed. Again I felt sorry for the immigrants whom I had just left, for they now must learn the significance of those two American watchwords, "pull" and "push."

Those who best know the immigrant are his strongest advocates. The Commissioner, under whose eye five thousand new arrivals pass day after day, said to me as we watched the endless procession, "Look at those hands, toil-worn and hardened with work in the fields. These men come here looking for work, hard work, and they find it. That is the sort of people that this country needs." One of the best known of the missionaries at Ellis Island expresses her faith in the alien, "I have been in the work nearly nineteen years, and each year increases my faith in humanity." A great southern state is seeking to direct immigration to its own borders. And this after investigation! Too often the class that laments the influx of these humble people is one which holds up its dainty skirts when it visits Ellis Island as one of the "sights" of New York.

THE NATIONAL SKI TOURNAMENT AT DULUTH

BY

SUMNER W. MATTESON

With photographs by the author

SPITE the mild weather the Third National Ski Tournament at Duluth on February 11 and 13, 1908, was a grand success and outstripped all preceding tournaments in length

of jumps, general attendance, and accommodation of spectators as well as skiers. The Duluth Ski Club is fortunate in possessing twenty-four acres of natural park adjoining the city park system, where the boulevard turns back along the ridge for its sweeping view of the city and far out across Lake Superior. It is mostly an open ravine with sides well wooded in pine, poplar and birch, while Chester Creek races through its shaded depths.

On the south side of this ravine where a forty-degree incline offered an ideal landing-place for the soaring skier, the trees were cleared and a scaffolding built 225 feet long, with a drop of 117 feet to the bump or jumping-off place. From here the natural hill dropped as many feet in the same distance and at the bottom was drawn the "dead line," beyond which a fall would not be counted against the rider. Then came a short, quick rise to retard the skier somewhat, though he must still throw his skies sideways and even on edge in order to stop short of the guide ropes. This performance required considerable skill and was closely scrutinized by the spectators to the embarrassment of the modest riders, and the more so on account of the danger of landing in the slush at the far end.

On the right side for 100 feet from the end of the scaffolding were 250 reserved seats that brought \$1 each and gave the holders an excellent chance to study the skiers in mid-air. Quite as satisfactory,

however, were the 1,250 seats at 50 cents each on the hillside across the lower end of the slide. Here the hills curve about and form a natural amphitheater where fully two hundred thousand spectators could easily be accommodated and all have a clear view of the slide from start to finish.

With warm weather and even dusty roads in Duluth through most of December and January, no one doubted but that February would still declare itself in the good old-fashioned way. The national meet of curlers had been held up for a week, but had experienced thirty degrees below zero before it adjourned. Then followed a good depth of snow, giving the skiers an opportunity to prove the possibilities of their hill, Ole Feiring clearing 120 feet on a practice jump. The best American record had been broken the year before on Red Wing's natural hill when Ole Mangseth cleared 114 feet during the Aurora Ski Club Tournament. That record must surely go and even Norway's world record of 137 feet seemed in danger. The grand contest was slated for Lincoln's birthday with amateur events on the day before for those under and over eighteen years of age. On Sunday, February 10, the hill was open to practice for the last time and was well patronized, though Duluth's best riders had gone to the tournament at Coleraine. Here Ole Feiring won first money and John Even-son second, besides taking the longest standing jump in 101 feet on a sticky slide, for, after a week of ideal weather, a dreaded thaw had set in.

There was a good depth of snow over all the hills about Duluth running to six hundred feet above the city, and here and there hardy Norsemen could be seen not only sliding and jumping but even skat-

ing on skies in a truly remarkable manner. The society folk of Duluth had also become interested in the sport, and family groups and social sets could be seen returning from excursions to log cabins and other public and private retreats in the country. Red flannel suits, stocking caps, German sox and moccasins were all in evidence and suggested the good times of twenty years ago when St. Paul could depend upon real winter weather and became famous for its ice palaces and winter carnivals. Surely Duluth could be depended upon for freezing weather in February at least; and what possibilities the Zenith City offered for winter sports with her bays for ice boating, her curling and hockey rinks and deep snow over a wild, high, rolling unfenced country to the west and north of Lake Superior.

Monday scarcely dawned at all, being dull and misty with temperature crowding the freezing point. The ski riders from Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota and even Illinois were arriving by clubs and singles, but fearful for the morrow. By noon the city streets were slop and slush, though pilgrims from Chester Hill reported but little thaw there, and a reasonable drop in temperature during the night would ice the hill with still better prospects of greater speed and higher records. But with no sun during the day there was no drop in temperature that night, and on Tuesday the conditions in town were such that those who did not realize the difference on the hill, never dreamed that the amateur events could be pulled off. The attendance was therefore limited and light-weight riders on rather sticky snow, and starting from the middle landing, did well to clear as high as seventy feet.

With but little encouragement from the weather man the club members nevertheless carried loads of snow to the chute and gave it a fresh layer the entire length, tamping it down by side-stepping all the way up on skies. The landing was also well raked and loosened up and everything made ready to accommodate the twenty or even thirty thousand people who would gladly pay 50 cents on the following national holiday to see the exciting sport with prospects of new records if the temperature fell below freezing.

In place of growing colder the mer-

cury rose to forty, and all Wednesday umbrellas were necessary for protection from an April drizzle. Nothing could be done but postpone the tournament until Thursday, and loyally enough the merchants of Duluth agreed also to postpone Lincoln's birthday by closing the following afternoon should the weather admit of skiing. Then, too, the weather man had sighted a drop in temperature on its way from the Dakotas. By midnight the sky had cleared and the freezing point was passed. This gave assurances that the slide could be used, for it faced the north and was so steep that the noonday sun in February could not reach it, and should twenty degrees be reached with an iced snow and no wind, ideal conditions would prevail for both skiers and spectators.

Early Thursday the slide was again raked and word sent around that the hill was in fine condition. By noon the mercury had again reached forty degrees and the bright sun had wrought such havoc with the city snow that sleighs had difficulty in making the hill and thousands of people gave up going. Nevertheless there were five thousand of the faithful on hand and over sixty of the riders who had entered. Though the going was sloppy, the slide was found to be in good condition and bound to become faster as the sun dropped. A half hour's delay in starting was therefore unnoticed, for the spectators were all comfortable in the warm sunshine and enjoying social visits and the sight of the beautiful birches on the snow-clad hills.

All who wished were given a trial jump to accustom themselves to the hill. No measurements were taken, but it could easily be seen that the track was fast and that good jumps were being made. One thousand and fifty dollars had been offered in twenty cash prizes of from \$5 to \$100 each, any one of which would mean considerable to these farmers and tradesmen who were accustomed to labor at \$1 to \$4 per day. Yet the spirit of true sport was strongly in evidence, and many, no matter how much in need of money, preferred trophies to cash and rather looked down upon special stunts in the way of daring tricks. After a trial jump each rider had three for the best general average, counting one for every foot from where the feet of the skier

HOW THE GOVERNMENT REMAKES WORN-OUT FARMS

BY

WILLIAM ATHERTON DU PUY



HEREVER there is a farm in all the vast expanse of the country, there is with it the ever-present problem of how to get from the soil the greatest possible profits. Since farming first began, the question of the greatest results from the given area and given labor has confronted the man who through his efforts has fed the multitude. Yet always each man has sought to answer the constantly recurring question solely from his own personal experience or that of his immediate neighbors. He has learned a few things and followed them doggedly and they have mostly died with him. The accumulated knowledge of all the generations dwelling in all climes which has been made accessible to the individual of to-day, is scarcely more than that which he might work out for himself in a score of years.

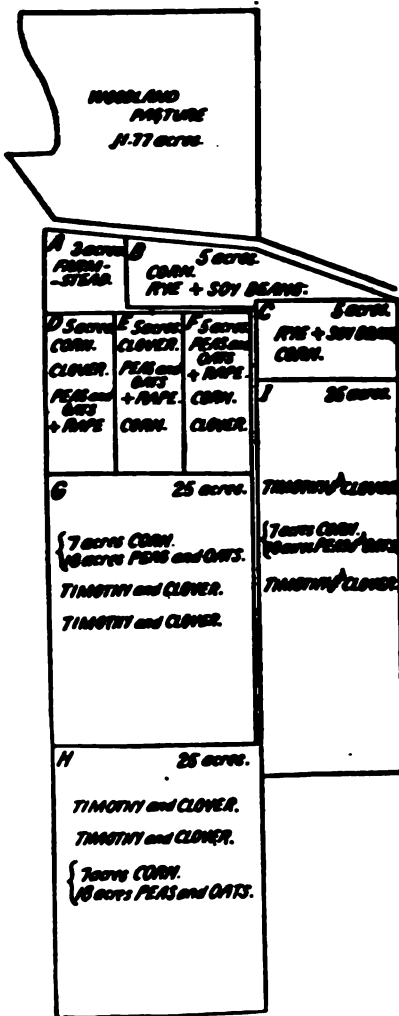
Were the problems solved by this individual combined with those worked out by all his neighbors of the same section, and applied thoroughly to a given farm through a broad-gauged understanding, there would be a concentration of efficiency and consequent profit. Then, were that concentration combined with the result of a similar study in a thousand such communities, and the best methods of all retained, there would be secured a recipe for farming that would be worthy the attention of the sagest graybeard of the rurals and, if generally applied, would profit the nation in hundreds of millions of dollars annually.

The preparation of just this information, and its adaptation to all the phases of farming, is the monumental task now being undertaken by the division of farm

management of the government's Department of Agriculture in Washington. A body of men of the soil who have supplemented their bringing up on the farm by the things taught by science, are endeavoring to gather all the facts from the practical field, supplement them with book lore, try them out on the experiment stations that extend from Maine to California and then lay down the simple rules and recommend them to all who choose to take the opportunity to know how to get the money from the soil fast and easily.

It is impossible for any one farmer to know how to get the greatest possible results from his farm. There may be a crop raised in Florida that would produce hundreds of dollars per acre if transplanted to Oregon, but the farmer in the latter state will probably never find it out. There may be just the soil in Nebraska that will produce tobacco of the peculiar excellence of that raised in Cuba, yet the Nebraska farmer may never experiment with it and might not appreciate its excellence if he raised it. A field in Illinois may have gradually grown poor in its production of corn until it can not be farmed at a profit, yet a rotation of crops would mend this evil if the owner could be brought to a realization of this fact. Ten years' profit may be lost in experimenting as to the best crop to raise on a forty-acre farm and feed a given number of hogs, yet a neighbor in an adjoining county may have worked it all out years ago. This information has been accumulating through the broad-gauged investigations of the government and is being dispensed by the division of farm management which has many of the facts in hand already and is rapidly accumulating more. This division is also laying out the plot of a farm for any who call upon it for information,

that would be derived from following these directions were given the applicant, and the figures, though carefully conservative, were twice any sum he had ever produced on the farm before.



A PLAN FOR A MIDDLE WEST FARM
Showing how rotation of crops is both practicable and profitable

A farmer in Ohio wrote that he had struggled for twenty years on an eighty-acre farm heavily mortgaged, but had been unable to reduce his debt or rise above a poverty that made the bringing up of his family a humiliation because of the lack of any advantages he was able to give. He asked if there was any hope for him on the farm or if he might as well

give up the fight. The department requested that he make a detailed report of his farm and its soils, and upon this it based a plan of farming which he was recommended to follow to the letter. There was a profit the first year of \$2,000, and the department believes that ultimately the despised eighty acres can be made to yield \$5,000 a year.

The division of farm management has recently made a plan for the right farming of a typical homestead in the Middle West, which is applicable to those in a great part of the nation. The farm selected contains 103 acres, upon which it is planned to keep twenty-five cows, ten head of horses, fifty hogs and one hundred chickens. The problem of what crops to raise and in what proportions to get the greatest results from this farm and its live stock is worked out in a definite scheme as shown in the accompanying diagram. The four small and three large fields are made of the same size in order that the same production may be maintained on the whole during the time portions are being used alternately as pasture or for hay during the rotation of crops. The plan for the larger fields, for instance, is seven acres of corn and eighteen of peas and oats for the first year on a given field. At the same time some other field is producing timothy and clover for pasture. Then the field that has grown the corn, peas and oats is set in timothy and clover for two years, while some other field produces the corn and peas. Through this system of rotation the soil is kept at the highest degree of productiveness. A similar rotation for the smaller fields with an occasional introduction of sorghum and winter wheat is followed chiefly in the interest of the hogs. The results of the adoption of this plan upon farms upon which it is suitable, are known, from demonstrations at experiment stations, to be highly profitable.

Following this idea, a plan that will fit a wide number of cases is being worked out for every grade of farming. If the farmer wants to raise hogs for the market he is to be told just what number he can handle on a given farm, at what time they should be born and when made ready for market, and just what crops he should grow, and in what proportions, to feed them and fatten them most economically.

The entire commerce, exports and imports, between the United States and the countries to the south of her, amounted in 1897, ten years ago, to \$252,427,798. Three years later, in 1900, this had grown to \$324,680,368. Five years more, in 1905, it had expanded to \$517,477,368; while two years later, 1907, we are gratified to note that it has reached the splendid total of \$587,194,945. It is thus seen that in ten years our trade with Latin America has increased by the vast sum of \$335,000,000, or has more than doubled. Certainly this is a record of which our country can be proud, and yet it is only a beginning of possibilities.

Inasmuch as the total foreign commerce of Latin America for 1907 was over \$2,000,000,000 it can be seen that the United States is far from having her share. The great point is that, if the United States, under present conditions, and with the present lack of interest, can conduct a trade with Latin America of nearly \$600,000,000 per annum, it is sure to do a business of \$1,000,000,000 in the near future, after our manufacturing and agricultural interests fully realize the value of the opportunity, and put forth their best energies to control it.

The Greatness of the Latin American Opportunity

Having taken up these measurements of commerce and trade, it is logical that we should consider some descriptive facts which shall prove to everybody the greatness and importance of the Latin American countries. There is not space in a brief article like this to describe carefully what has been done by Mexico, Central America, Cuba, Haiti and Santo Domingo, which border on the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea, and therefore particular attention will be given only to South America proper. In passing, however, we should bear in mind that over \$800,000,000 of American capital has been invested in Mexico, and that last year that country conducted a trade with the United States valued at nearly \$125,000,000, of which \$67,000,000 represented imports from the United States.

Central America, comprising Guatemala, Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua and Costa Rica, is entering upon a new era of prosperity and progress as a result of the treaties and conventions signed at the

Central American Peace Conference recently held in Washington. If these international agreements are approved by all these countries, there is no reason why they should not have a growth and development like that of Mexico, because they possess a remarkable variety of resources and a favorable climate in most sections. In 1906 Central America conducted a foreign trade valued at over \$56,000,000, of which the imports from the United States amounted to nearly \$30,000,000.

The republics and islands of the West Indies are forging ahead, and last year boasted of a foreign trade amounting to \$184,000,000, of which \$73,000,000 were imports by these islands from the United States.

Coming then to South America proper, and noting some salient facts, we are impressed first with Colombia, the nearest to the United States of the South American republics, having an area as large as Germany and France put together, and entering upon an era of rapid progress as the result of the enlightened administration of General Rafael Reyes. Having traveled extensively over the interior of Colombia, I can vouch for its richness. As soon as it is opened up by railroads and by improved navigation of its rivers, it should have a development not unlike that of Mexico.

Venezuela greatly resembles Colombia with an unusual mingling of rich plateaus and river valleys which offer an inviting field of legitimate exploitation. The mighty valley of the Orinoco alone is a section in which millions and millions of capital may be safely invested.

The British, Dutch and French Guianas have only been barely touched by the hand of capital, and yet they will soon experience a progress surpassing any past development.

Brazil's Vast Areas and Possibilities

Brazil is indeed an interesting subject to discuss. It is so large, so resourceful, and so vast in potentialities, that it is difficult to confine oneself to conservative language. When we remember that the entire connected area of the United States could be placed inside the limits of Brazil, and that there would still be room for the German Empire; that out of the Amazon River flows every day three times as much

water as from the Mississippi; that Rio de Janeiro, its capital, is already a city of nine hundred thousand inhabitants and growing with rapidity; that the government and people of Brazil gave our battle-ship fleet a more magnificent welcome than was ever given to a visiting fleet from a foreign nation in the history of the world, then we shall have before us some facts that show how worthy of our special attention is this great Republic of South America.

All over Brazil there is evidence of the new era of material progress. Railroads are being built into the interior, rivers and harbors are being improved, the cities are being modernized, the school systems are being elaborated, and the native richness of the soil and forests is being exploited, with the result that a large amount of European and American capital is being invested there with absolute surety of good returns. In no country of South America has the manufacturer and exporter a better chance to build up his trade than in Brazil. To-day the balance of commerce exchanged is greatly against us. Brazil buys from the United States only about one-fifth in value of what she sells there. This country is Brazil's chief market for coffee, but our merchants have made so little effort to supply what Brazil demands from foreign countries that Europe practically controls the import situation.

Uruguay, just below Brazil, and Paraguay, between Brazil and Argentina, are small in area but rich in agricultural possibilities. The city of Montevideo, the capital of Uruguay, has a population of three hundred thousand and is an important port at the mouth of the Rio Plata. The peoples of both countries are enterprising and progressive, and believe that their nations will see remarkable progress during the next decade. Montevideo is spending nearly \$10,000,000 in the improvement of its harbor facilities, while Asunción, the capital of Paraguay, is looking forward to the improvement of the River Paraná and to the extension of the railroad system, so that it will be in communication on the one hand with Argentina and Uruguay, and on the other with Brazil.

In this connection, it must be remembered that southern Brazil, Uruguay, Paraguay, all of Argentina and Chile are

practically in the south temperate zone, and possess climatic conditions not unlike those of the United States far north of the equator. Such a location means much for their future development as the homes of ambitious peoples.

Argentina a Wonderland of Material Progress

Argentina is a country of peculiar interest. It has gone ahead with such rapidity during the last ten years that it is difficult to predict what another decade will show. It has such a large area suitable for the growth of products which are needed in Europe that it is always sure to have an enormous foreign trade. With a present population of nearly six million people, it conducted in 1907 a foreign commerce valued at nearly \$600,000,000, a total greater than that of Japan or of China. This gives an average of nearly \$100 a head, which is larger than that of any other important country in the world.

Argentina is gridironed with a system of railroads which enables one to cross the continent from Buenos Aires to Santiago in less than forty-eight hours, including a short trip by coach over the top of the Andes, and to go in a Pullman train from the borders of Bolivia on the north into the heart of Patagonia on the south.

Buenos Aires, its capital, is one of the wonderful cities of the world. It has a population now of nearly one million two hundred thousand, and is growing more rapidly than any city in the United States with the exception of New York. It has a finer system of docks and wharves, a more costly and beautiful opera house, a larger club and a more extensive newspaper plant than any city of our own progressive land. It is about to build an intricate system of underground railways, and it is made beautiful by numerous boulevards, parks and squares. The commerce of all Argentina centers in Buenos Aires, and it is not an uncommon thing to see scores and scores of merchant vessels, flying the flag of every important country except the United States, loading and unloading along its water front. The people are decidedly progressive, and represent a new race, inasmuch as they are a combination of Spanish and Italian, with a sprinkling of English and German blood, and they are developing a class of men and women who insure the future strength and quality of the country.

Chile and the West Coast of South America

The size and importance of Chile can be best appreciated by remembering, first, that it runs up and down the west coast of South America in the temperate zone just as our own west coast borders on the Pacific Ocean, and, second, that if the southern end of Chile were placed at San Diego, the southern end of California, the northern line of Chile would be located in the middle of Alaska. In other words, it extends north two thousand six hundred miles from the Straits of Magellan to the Peruvian border, while its average width is that of California with a corresponding variety of climate and products. Its capital city, Santiago, has a population of four hundred thousand, and is classed as one of the most attractive cities of the southern continent. At its principal port, Valparaiso, the Chilean government is preparing to spend \$10,000,000 for harbor and dockage facilities, thus making it the most complete port on the Pacific Ocean.

Although Chile is well provided with railroads, the government is now at work on a scheme for a longitudinal road to run the entire length of the country, and to connect the capital with every section. The enormous wealth of the nitrate fields of Chile brings to the country a vast revenue which makes it almost independent of other sources for the maintenance of the government. Chile is anxious for the completion of the Panama Canal so that it can get into closer touch with the United States. When that waterway is completed, it should be possible to go from New York to Valparaiso easily in fifteen days, while now it takes on an average of thirty days. The foreign commerce of Chile last year amounted to \$180,000,000.

Bolivia, Peru and Ecuador

Although Bolivia has no seacoast, it covers an immense territory, in which could be placed the State of Texas twice over and still leave room for Arkansas and Kansas. A large portion of it is located at a high altitude so that it has favorable climatic conditions. It possesses a remarkable variety of mineral and agricultural riches, and is entering now upon a period of real progress. An American syndicate is building a system of railroads upon which will be expended more than

\$100,000,000. Its interesting capital, La Paz, can be reached by a combination journey of rail and water up from the Pacific Ocean and across Lake Titicaca, the most elevated and navigable body of water in the world. The value of the foreign trade of Bolivia is approximately \$33,500,000, but it is growing with rapidity and bids fair to double itself in the near future.

North of Bolivia extends Peru over an area in which could be placed all of the Atlantic Coast States from Maine to Georgia. It has a mingling of low country along the Pacific and again in the upper valleys of the Amazon, so that, with the great plateaus and mountainous districts of the Andes, Peru possesses a wide variety of climate, products and resources. Many millions of American capital have already been invested there in the development of its mines.

Lima, the capital city of Peru, is one of the oldest and most aristocratic capitals of Latin America. Here was established a university one hundred years before Harvard was founded. Here was the seat of one of the Spanish vice-royalties in the days of the old régime. To-day, it is a prosperous, busy and well built metropolis. The port of Lima is Callao, only a few miles away, where the American fleet under Admiral Evans made its fourth stop in its journey around South America. It has an excellent harbor, and through it passes the greater part of the foreign trade of Peru, amounting to \$49,150,000.

Ecuador, in which the State of Illinois could be placed many times, is rejoicing now in the prospect of the early completion of the railroad which connects its principal port, Guayaquil, on the coast, with the famous old capital of the republic, Quito, a city of about eighty thousand people, located at an elevation of ten thousand feet above sea-level, upon the plateaus of the Andes. When this road with its branches is completed, the interior of Ecuador will experience a development that will add much to the wealth of the country.

In 1909 Ecuador will hold an exposition to celebrate the one hundredth anniversary of the declaration of independence from Spain, and it is expected that there will be a great display of the natural

duct commerce, to carry letters and to take care of passenger traffic and express freight requiring early delivery, as it is to have the corresponding kind of railroad trains upon land.

Can any one imagine Chicago holding its present position if it were reached only by freight trains? The fast mail, express and passenger railroad service is an absolute, if not the principal, essential to the development of the exchange of trade. It is folly, therefore, to expect that the United States can ever hold an important position in the commerce of South America unless the facilities for going back and forth, and for mail communication, are improved.

There could be no better evidence of the unfortunate state of affairs than the fact that more business men from the progressive republic of Argentina left Buenos Aires in one week, aboard the fast and elegant European steamers, either to visit Europe on business or to enjoy travel, than proceeded to the United States in a whole year on the slow-going vessels that connect Buenos Aires with New York. The records of Rio de Janeiro, the great capital of Brazil, show that the European boats in one week carried away more Brazilians to Europe than all the vessels running to the United States in a whole year.

The solution of this problem is not in a so-called "subsidy," which is an unfortunate term and often misleading. The whole question boils itself down into the necessity of paying a good wage for work well done. That is, the United States Government must be ready to pay steamship companies flying the American flag such a reasonable sum for carrying the mails on vessels of, say, seventeen-knots' speed and first-class passenger accommodations, that they can deliver mails and passengers in competition with the vessels of Europe, and so provide the same kind of facilities on sea that we get from the mail trains on land throughout the United States, and to which the United States Government pays a regular sum for the quality of service rendered.

The International Bureau of the American Republics

In conclusion, advantage is taken of this opportunity to call the attention of business men who read this article to the

International Bureau of the American Republics. This institution was founded eighteen years ago at the first Pan-American Conference for the purpose of disseminating information throughout the different American Republics concerning mutual progress and development. As a result of the third Pan-American Conference held at Rio de Janeiro and through the efforts of Secretary Root, who has done more than any other man in the history of American diplomacy to advance the prestige and influence of the United States in Latin America, it has been reorganized and enlarged so that it may become a world-recognized and practical agency for the development of Pan-American commerce and comity. It is intended to be not only a bureau of information, supplying all varieties of data regarding different American countries to manufacturers, educators, travelers, students, etc., but the means through which all the resolutions of the different Pan-American Conferences shall be put into force.

Everything possible is done by the Bureau to bring about better relations and more intimate acquaintance and intercourse among all the nations of the western hemisphere. It publishes a monthly bulletin which is a careful record of the commercial and business conditions of all the republics, and distributes a large number of publications descriptive of the American republics, their conditions, resources and potentialities. Connected with it is the Columbus Memorial Library, which is the largest single collection in the United States of books relating to the history, progress and present status of all the countries under discussion.

Through the beneficence of Mr. Andrew Carnegie and the contributions of the different governments, the International Bureau is shortly to be housed in a magnificent new building which will cost approximately \$750,000, and provide in Washington a temple of friendship and commerce which will be, in a sense, a meeting place for all the American republics.

The Bureau is supported by the joint contributions of the twenty-one American republics, and its affairs are controlled by a governing board composed of the diplomatic representatives in Washington of

twenty republics, with the Secretary of State of the United States as Chairman ex-officio. Its chief executive officer is the Director, who is chosen by this governing board. He, in turn, is assisted by the Secretary of the Bureau and other officials and experts.

In the event that any one desires infor-

mation, he may address the Director, Pan-American Bureau (as it is commonly described) 2 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C. It will be a special pleasure to consider carefully any inquiries regarding Latin America which may come from the large and representative constituency of THE WORLD TO-DAY.

JOHN BULL: THE COMMERCIAL CONSERVATIVE

BY

JAMES H. COLLINS

EXPERIENCED Americans, established commercially in London, say that the average Yankee who goes there for a similar purpose needs a Baedeker to the English tempera-

ment and point of view. They maintain that only a small proportion of our commercial emigrants ever succeed in getting a foothold in the British metropolis. Some of the failures are due to unsuitable projects. But more can be laid to misunderstanding of the English themselves, and to Yankee bumptiousness.

An American with half an eye for a joke, spending half a day in London, is certain to be amused by two characteristics of John Bull as a business man. First, his actual methods of doing business, which are sedate by our standards. Second, his curious notions of what American business methods really are.

It is entirely fair to laugh at Cousin John in these matters, for they are precisely the points in our business life that supply him with stories to take home from his flying visit to "the States."

Concerning his distrust of our labor-saving contrivances and short cuts, there can be no doubt whatever. The telephone, typewriter and computing machine, the loose-leaf ledger, card index and vertical file, the modern office sky-scraper with its light, warmth and cleanliness, are hardly

known in London, according to our standards.

At the entrance of a six-story office building off the Strand you are met by a Glorious Apoller in silk hat banded with gold filagree, his broad bosom embossed with buttons and braid. He is as skeptical as resplendent. He wants to know who you want to see, and takes you up in a little lift that holds two persons besides himself, and is the last word of modernity in London business life. This convenience rises so slowly, however, that when you get back home our express elevators whirl your breath away. If it is only two flights up, Apoller expects you to walk. And he always prefers that you walk down. The difference between an elevator and a "lift" is not altogether one of words, for London knows nothing of our huge vertical passenger traffic, now exceeding the street car, subway and elevated traffic in New York. Apoller might be a bit dashed by an elevator with a straight lift of one-ninth of a mile.

London, too, regards most of our office conveniences as toys, and adopts them slowly. Clerical work is done largely by hand, and with quite a pathetic belief that the old ways are quicker, or at any rate more efficient than those of the superficial Yankees. London does not know that, were it not for our office machinery, we should be down posting the books all night, and every night in the year. Its knowledge of our business methods comes

largely from accounts in its own papers, funny in their preposterous distortion of fact, and still funnier in the sober credence the English give them. They are like the stories of American multi-millionaire orgies printed and believed in London, at which flights of tropical butterflies, costing a guinea apiece, are let loose with the dessert.

Some English engineers were building a paper-mill in the woods of New Brunswick. An American contractor came to their camp to bid on some of the work, and was handsomely entertained over night. At breakfast next morning there was the inevitable orange marmalade. The visitor stowed away his first helping so easily that he was pressed to have more.

"Why, no, thank you," he said. "You're a long way from supplies here, and there are only three jars left, you know."

His hosts were mystified. Courtesy prevented a direct question. But later in the day they wanted to know how he had learned the camp was short of jam.

"Oh, I happened to look into your cook-house yesterday," laughed the contractor, "and saw three jars, and the cook said that was all he had."

His interrogator took some time to think this over. Finally he remarked a bit admiringly:

"I say, you know! *That* shows what attention you Yankees give to details in getting business — doesn't it!"

Now, this yarn, with appropriate trimmings, will undoubtedly reach England in time, and be cited as an instance of American enterprise. It is upon such fancies that Cousin John builds his tradition of Yankee cleverness and hustling, and he seldom hits closer to the facts of our civilization.

We retaliate by hitting not much closer to the facts in his case. We have been telling stories of British conservatism and slowness so long that the real facts have rather been lost sight of — if we ever had them. There are striking contrasts in our respective ways of doing business. But each nation's methods are based on pronounced differences in economic conditions, and in temperament, so that each is very nearly right.

England is old, and not very large. She has had surplus population to ship

away for at least a century. Her per capita trade has increased hardly five per cent in the past generation. Natural resources have all been laid bare and parcelled out. Commerce at home runs in established channels, and is sometimes monopolized, while new competitors are growing strong in foreign markets. John Bull at home has only enough trade to live on, and sometimes not enough. What he has, was left him by his father, perhaps, and he is more concerned with keeping it than in getting more. Behind his domestic trade lies no such enormous expansive power as behind our own. His climate is against driving. His industries are closely regulated by law, and pay imperial taxes instead of subsisting on tariff advantages.

We Americans, on the contrary, have a vast continent, with natural resources exceeding our ability to utilize. Instead of sending away surplus people, we import the surplus of other nations. We are envied by the English because our country is self-contained — that is, able to feed us and supply all our basic wants. We have a brisk, stimulating climate, and a population that is the most liberal in the world in its purchases. Our people never have enough commodities. After a panic we talk dolefully of "overproduction." But it is not certain that we have ever come down with the disease itself. There were no stocks of goods on our shelves last October. There are none to-day. Past panics have been caused rather by headlong capitalization, which we deplore, and yet can hardly prevent, for it is brought about largely through that enormous driving power, our home demand.

The British tourist sees the Yankee's office lit up far into the night, and goes home to report that he is forever pushing his business. But as a matter of strict truth, it is the Yankee's business that is pushing him.

An Englishman goes into trade to make a competence. His business will not drive him, and he seldom drives it. He retires at the appointed time, leaving not an inch of his skin behind.

But an American who puts his little finger to business here at home is drawn in bodily. His shop is no sooner set up than he is pressed by demand, demand, demand. Plant must be enlarged, machin-

ery speeded. He never has enough efficient labor, and can not ship goods as fast as they are wanted. We house anew in this country each year one-fifteenth the population of England, and build in about four years enough new railroad to duplicate the total mileage of Great Britain.

To get the right point of view on John Bull temperamentally it is necessary to watch him in politics as well as business.

An American is direct and practical in business, and judges an enterprise by what it will pay in profits. The dollar is his gauge, not in a sordid sense, but as a yardstick; if it won't pay, he reasons, then it isn't needed. The Englishman in business, however, is apt to be something of a sentimentalist. Even among the hard-headed manufacturers of the great English iron country, where they boast that the world contains nothing too hot or too heavy for them to handle, there will be found a purely sentimental pride in old ways because they are old, and a distrust of the new because it is new, and an immense satisfaction in the establishment that has been handed down by forebears. They cling to handcraft, to the small partnership or firm. The more effective joint-stock company is distrusted, and the machine is installed only under pressure. They like the past. "This is the hat me father wore."

But look into politics, and conditions in the two countries are exactly reversed. It is here that the Yankee is sentimental or a shirker, while the Briton is direct and practical. As the Yankee is always a business man, so John Bull is a politician from one year's end to the other.

When one of our politicians "sells us out," the Yankee says: "We must set a higher ideal, we must get a new viewpoint." When a public servant "goes bad" in England, though, they get some paper bags, fill them with flour and red ochre, and wait until the renegade climbs onto a cart to address his constituents. Instead of seeking for a new viewpoint, the English pull up cobblestones. A woman who goes into business in the United States is expected to take her chances. The woman who goes into politics in England must not be astonished if they make her an actual target, or put her

Politics there are held in as high esteem as we hold business. while business is not much more desirable as a career than politics with us.

When an American has a business enterprise afoot it is his prayer that his government will leave him alone. He will even bribe it for immunity. But an Englishman's business affair seems most satisfactory to him when he can make it a political issue. He bids on horseshoes for the army, and loses the contract because foreign manufacturers will make them more cheaply and deliver at an earlier date. Well, in a week parliament resounds with the political outcry from what, with us, would be simple competition — give and take.

Some months ago a New York house, with its branch in London, sent over a new advertising booklet, suggesting that the London manager might find it effective on his side. It was written for business men, and had some such title as, "How the Business Man Can Take a Daily Vacation." The London manager thought it interesting, and hoped to adapt it for English readers. "But the title would never do in England," he said, "because nobody over here is supposed to be in business, you know."

This comes dangerously near being John Bull's national attitude. Business is almost proscribed in England. Thousands of the best men never consider it in choosing careers, finding places in law, among the clergy, in the army, navy or civil service, all of which are organized on a grand scale, and carry gentlemanly prestige. Even the British business man's thoughts run toward public life or social advancement. We see captains of industry knighted, or made peers. But seldom for industrial achievements. Political service, aid to party, advancement of science in connection with manufacturing — these are the real reasons for elevation. At the last resort they will make a man a royal commissioner before they make him a knight.

These things must be taken into consideration by any American seeking to understand or deal with the Englishman in his own country. They are at the bottom of much of the present conservatism and lack of aggression in British production and trading.

The world's whole modern industrial fabric grew up out of two or three counties in this right little, tight little island. First came the steam engine. Then textile industry, developed almost wholly by English inventors of the power loom, spinning frame, knitting machine, etc. Later followed the railroad, in which England was not only first at home, but active in building and managing Continental lines. Then followed the blast furnace, the Bessemer process, the puddling furnace and rolling mill, giving England supremacy in iron and steel.

But the United States and Germany have both passed Great Britain in iron and steel production. Development of textile industries in other countries has made inroads on Lancashire and Yorkshire. American machine tools have for some time been sold very widely in England, and their reputation in British colonies is said to be so great that many of the really fine English products in this line are comparatively unknown. Yet England was the pioneer in machine tools also. Her activity in building machinery from 1820 to 1850 led to a need for better machines to make machines, and Joseph Whitworth was first to establish standard measurements and develop exactitude.

In heating, lighting, plumbing, household conveniences and small machinery, we have so far outrun England in development and manufacture that American practice is now being studied there, and our apparatus introduced. But the British attitude toward a good Yankee notion is usually one of distrust. Cousin John may take years to give it even a trial, and then would prefer to see it fail, justifying his suspicion, than successfully to adapt and make money by it. He has a tremendous memory for Yankee failures, too. A retired Londoner, visiting the United States, was impressed with our low-price automobiles, and took steps to secure for his son the British selling agency of a good American car. When he got home, though, and canvassed his friends on the subject they thoroughly discouraged him, pointing to the unhappy reputation still borne in England by the American bicycle because some of our manufacturers sent cheap, unreliable wheels abroad when we were exporting seven million dollars'

worth a year. So eventually he gave up his plans.

Yankee methods and British conservatism are concretely contrasted in the lock-manufacturing business of the two countries. In 1851 an American named Hobbs suddenly appeared in England and picked the most intricate bank locks then made by British manufacturers. Subsequently he introduced locks of his own, as well as machine processes for making them. Apart from dexterity, it is said, there was nothing new in the methods Hobbs employed to open strongboxes. Such locks had been picked years before by English experts, and the method described in the *Encyclopedia Britannica*. Others might have done as much. Hobbs went further than picking locks, however. He made a noise about it — the last thing an Englishman would do. He made so much noise, in fact, that soon another Yankee, Linus Yale, went to London, picked Hobbs' locks, introduced one of his own, picked that himself a little later, and replaced it with the dial lock. He also began selling in England a tumbler lock of the very type that Hobbs had picked in the beginning, and we have been selling that lock in England ever since. In the meantime, John Bull has been turning out locks largely by hand in the Midlands, the industry being made up of small concerns, founded by workmen. Only to-day is machinery being generally introduced to make goods that can be sold as substitutes for the Yankee locks, and the chief appeal in selling is a lower price, made possible by cheaper labor.

John Bull's trade is full of similar incongruities. A splendid pioneer, he has fallen behind in the development and exploitation of many devices that he originally discovered. He capitalizes his industries sparingly. In the face of shrinking demand, and when pressed by competition, he tried to regain lost ground by economics and retrenchment instead of expansion and improvement. He hesitates to make a noise about some of the solid, honest commodities he does produce: textiles, machinery, cutlery, pottery, chemicals, iron and steel. He is hampered in his business life by the slow breaking up of social caste in an age to which it is wholly unsuited. He has been for fully a generation perhaps the least

teachable international person on the globe, and is still disinclined to believe what he sees with his own eyes so long as a Yankee or German is connected with the demonstration.

But to-day he is beginning to look about for ideas and methods, and is even absorbing them. What he has done in the past, he can do again, and will do. In his com-

mercial reorganization Americans have much to offer him, and he realizes this more fully than he did a few years ago. With this better understanding of us and our ways, and a better comprehension of his ways and himself, it looks very much as though we should both have considerable business with one another from now on.

GROWING PLANTS BY ELECTRICITY

BY .

S. LEONARD BASTIN

each year goes by, man learns more about the forces of Nature; but the secret of how best to apply these to his own ends often takes a great deal of investigation. The importance

of advancing strictly upon natural lines has perhaps never been more strikingly illustrated than in the new electric culture experiments with plants, which are being carried on at Regent's Park, London.

The new system which has been introduced by Mr. B. H. Thwait, a famous electrical engineer, undertakes to supply all the necessities of the living plant. From a single gas engine, connected with an electric apparatus, it is possible to obtain artificial light, carbonic acid gas, heat, and energizing current to stimulate the growth of both the upper and lower portions of the plant. The electric charges are of course produced by the apparatus operated by the gas engine. The explosion of the gas, which gives the thrust to the piston of the engine, occasions a considerable amount of heat. This, by means of a water jacket, is captured, and from thence conveyed to the greenhouse in which the plants are situated, by means of pipes. The combustion of the gas involves the production of carbonic acid, which, after purification, is allowed to mingle with the air of the greenhouse. This, as is well known, is a most important atmospheric food to the plant, and one of which it can not well have too much.

Of course the idea of finding a substitute for the sun's rays to use in the culture of plants during dull weather, or for forcing purposes, is not by any means new. As long ago as 1881 the late Sir William Siemens proved that the rays from an electric arc lamp were almost identical in their effect upon vegetation with those of sunlight. But these experiments were not perfectly satisfactory, perhaps owing to the fact that not sufficient consideration was taken of the conditions under which plants grow naturally. It is a simple point, but in these last experiments it has been found to be a very important one, to have the electric arc continuously on the move. This is arranged by affixing the lamp to a small motor which runs up and down the house on rails. A moment's thought will show the purpose of this device. Owing to the apparent movements of the sun, the rays from the solar orb are never stationary for a single minute on any part of vegetation. Another special feature is the placing of a water screen so that the electric rays passing through this medium are robbed of most of their heat. Very much the same process goes on in the case of the sun and our world. The rays of light as they reach us have been toned down from much of their fierceness because they have passed through that which is practically a water screen, composed of countless myriads of moisture particles which go to make up our atmosphere.

For the purpose of being able to determine just what was the effect of the light

ZELIA NUTTALL: ARCHAEOLOGIST OF MEXICO

BY

ROBY DANENBAUM

November, 1907, President Diaz, through the Minister of Public Instruction of Mexico, nominated Mrs. Nuttall Honorary Professor of the Mexican National Museum. Some time ago, she declined the office of Curator of the Mexican Archaeological Museum. These marks of appreciation were preceded a few months by others of equal significance. Early in the year, Mrs. Nuttall was made a fellow of the Metropolitan Museum of New York, and also the only woman delegate appointed to the conference of the International Geographical Society which assembles at Geneva, Switzerland, in May, 1908. Mrs. Nuttall is one of the vice-presidents of this society.

Mrs. Nuttall's most valuable contribution to science is her latest book, published by the Peabody Museum of Harvard University, of which she was made Honorary Special Assistant in 1887. This work, "The Fundamental Principles of Old and New World Civilizations," is the result of thirteen years of work, which, at the start, was undertaken in the interest of a monograph on the swastika, the well-known Indian cross. The monograph was set up and printed, when, standing before her window one evening, looking through the clear Mexican atmosphere at the constellation Ursa Major, she saw, to use her own words, that "it bore the semblance of a swastika of giant proportions." This discovery caused her to change her plans. Tracing the cross to this astronomical source, as used in several countries where it is similarly based on the pole-star worship, she decided to incorporate the monograph in the work which treats exhaustively prehistoric culture, beginning with that of America, continuing with the

Asiatic, Egyptian and European, and concluding with culture in general.

Mrs. Nuttall first attracted attention among scholars by the publication in the *American Journal of Archaeology*, in 1886, of her work on "The Terra Cotta Heads of Teotihuacan." This article was followed by others which were widely sought by the scientists and scientific societies. Her researches in the various museums of Europe have resulted in some important additions to ancient history. She was a member of the scientific mission sent to Russia in 1894 by the University of Pennsylvania, and her conscientious, scholarly efforts earned for her the title, "Honorary Member of the Pennsylvania Archaeological Association."

The Codex Nuttall reproduced by Peabody Museum, in facsimile, in 1902, is considered the best preserved and most valuable record of ancient Mexico. Its discovery came about by chance, one of the fascinating features of the illimitable labors of research. Exploring in a private collection in San Andres, in the Tyrol, Mrs. Nuttall discovered the finest featherwork shield and fan in the world. In 1810, the Vienna Museum authorities had loudly bemoaned the loss of these articles, for they had been sent to Charles V. by Cortez; Mrs. Nuttall identified them without question.

With the intense enthusiasm and unwearyed persistency which characterizes her work, Mrs. Nuttall followed up this branch of the art of New Spain as well as kindred investigation. In the Pitti Palace in Florence she found a marvelous, well preserved mosaic mitre of feathers, of the sixteenth century, and in the Armenia Reale, in Madrid, she ferreted out a large shield which she proved to have been a present from Charles V. to Phillip II. when he was infante of Spain. In the

has the reputation among her fellow workers of being the most trustworthy and diligent of researchers. This fact, added to her deep study of Mexican history, caused her to receive the appointment of Field Director of the Reid-Crocker mission. This commission led to her taking up her residence in Coyoacan, one of the historico-romantic suburbs of Mexico City. Here, in the palace built by Alvarado, Cortez' most valiant and trusted adjutant, and in the luxurious parklike garden in the rear of the Casa Alvarado, with its profusion of exquisite blossoms and foliage, which are Mrs. Nuttall's chief delight, she pursues her studies when not in the field.

At the present time, with other scientists, Mrs. Nuttall is exploring the recently unearthed treasures at the Pyramids of the Sun and the Moon near Teotihuacan, twenty-seven miles from Mexico City. An interesting quantity of important finds have been excavated here recently. Rooms which seem to have been a part of an ancient temple; subterranean houses two and three stories high painted with the red coloring characteristic of Teotihuacan; a skeleton of a man supposed to have been an ancient Toltec king and that of a tiger lying beside it, both painted red; quantities of obsidian beads, jade and obsidian idols, polished stone masks, knives, snakes, and quantities of beautifully polished sea shells of extraordinary size were among the valuable things found. The finds have been so numerous and of such consequence that a local museum is to be built at the foot of the Pyramid of the Sun.

While Mrs. Nuttall has done some important field work, her greatest individual discoveries have been made in the interpretation of manuscripts and picture writings. Her extensive learning and mastery of languages specially fit her for such investigation.

Zelia Nuttall was born in San Francisco. Her mother was an American, her father, Doctor Nuttall, an Englishman well known to the world of science. He was a fellow of the Royal College of Ireland for eighteen years. When he retired from practice he took his family to Europe that his children might become conversant with the different languages. He builded wisely, for through his careful training they have become of real service to the world. His son, after occupying a chair at Harvard University, accepted a position in England, where he is professor in protozoic zoölogy and bacteriology in Cambridge University. Mrs. Nuttall credits her understanding of the seven languages in which she is proficient, to her years of study in the different European countries. This knowledge of varied tongues enables her to report her researches by word of mouth before foreign societies before whom she is often called.

Mrs. Nuttall is an inspiration and example to all womankind. In addition to the honors mentioned previously, she is a fellow of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, a member of the Anthropological Society of Washington, the Philosophical Society of Philadelphia founded by Benjamin Franklin, the Antiquarian and Numismatic Society of the same city, the Italian Society of Anthropology, the "Societe des Americanistes de Paris," and the "Antonio Alzate" of Mexico, and has been a member of the jury of awards in all of the great American expositions, beginning with the Columbian. She has received, also, several medals and high tributes from foreign expositions.

Still in early middle life, a woman of striking brunette beauty, graciously winning in manner and character, Mrs. Nuttall's life is devoted to her researches and to presenting them to the world.



tages for children — emergency cases where the parents are in hospitals or otherwise detained from their homes with no one to care for their little ones, is under consideration. The site is also excellent for a fresh-air camp.

Dustless Roadways

By Roy R. Moore

“WE are now experiencing the luxury of absolutely dustless roadways.”

A bulletin issued last July by the Kansas City park board makes the above statement. A year ago during the summer months, the board had its whole force of sprinkling wagons going every day in an attempt to keep down the dust which made the enjoyment of the park drives impossible at times. In a few hours the hot summer sun dried the roads, and every passing motor car left clouds of fine rock-dust to settle on the foliage along the drive.

Now a motor car passing at the highest speed over any portion of the extensive boulevard system leaves no dusty trail in its wake. The oil has not only proved much more effective than water but is a third cheaper and preserves the roadways as well. One of the serious problems here, as in other cities, has been the preservation of the drives from the wear of the motor car wheels. The oiled boulevard is also protected from erosion. Formerly every rainstorm left ragged gullies which took several days to repair. The eye of the most inexperienced could see that something was needed to bind the macadam, to preserve a smooth surface without dust and prevent washouts at the same time.

“I’ve heard of oil being used in Canada, Mexico and California,” said a member of the park board. “I think we ought to try it here.”

There was much diversity of opinion, however, at the suggested use of oil on the boulevards. Twenty liverymen were interviewed the following day, and to a man they opposed the plan.

“It leaves the pavement slippery and dangerous for horses,” said one. “It makes the city’s pleasure drives unsafe, especially for women who drive, and the vehicles and clothing are ruined by the oily dust thrown up by the wheels.”

“I don’t think the oiled boulevard will work unless the horses are rough-shod,” said another man. “Besides our carriages will get splattered with oil.”

A petition was signed by the majority of the residents of Armour Boulevard, the finest street of the city, protesting against the use of oil on Armour Boulevard. “We protest against the use of oil in our district,” the petition read. “We do not want our carriages and autos ruined.”

The motorists, however, won the day. Although a few opposed the plan, the majority were in favor of it. The manager of an automobile company had been in Lexington, Kentucky, where oil was used on the roadways. Another reported that Los Angeles had experimented successfully with oil. The board of park commissioners acted favorably upon the matter, and work commenced in May, at the beginning of warm weather.

Kansas City is not far distant from the oil fields. Throughout southern Kansas and eastern Oklahoma the oil industry has become second to none. The park board was able to buy a good quality of oil at a range of 60c to 80c per barrel of forty-two gallons, delivered on the track at Kansas City. To facilitate matters, two steel receiving tanks of eight thousand gallons capacity each, were erected alongside of the Belt Line Railway tracks at a total cost of \$714.99. The slope of the land was such that the tanks were lower than the railway track and the oil cars were unloaded by gravity. The elevation of the tanks also permitted the sprinkling carts to be filled by gravity. It was a simple process. The oil cars were switched alongside of the big receiving tanks and were connected with the four-inch pipe which emptied into each. The sprinkling carts were driven alongside of the tanks and the faucets turned. The drivers had nothing to do but wait until the carts were filled.

When the macadam was absolutely dry and hard, the surface of the roadway was swept clean of dirt and screenings. No work was attempted after a rain until the roadway had become perfectly dry. The sweepings were left alongside of the gutter for protection to the cement work and then the oil was applied from the sprinkling carts. Oil, however, is too heavy to be distributed like water. To guarantee

ralists and the general public will have the opportunity of studying to unusual advantage this fascinating and accurate representation of the racing mechanism of the horse.

Sysonby's death at the early age of four years occurred at Sheepshead track on June 17, 1906, after an illness of three months, due to a mysterious and baffling malady, diagnosed as septic poisoning. Four veterinarians, a physician and a skin specialist composed the medical staff which fought hard to save the life of this noted turf patient. Sysonby was buried in a plot in the training quarters at Sheepshead Bay.

One month later, during which interval Mr. Keene was undecided as to the exact disposition he would make of the remains, and the best form of perpetuating the memory of his favorite racer, he agreed to present the skeleton for permanent mounting in the Museum, with the fund named for carrying out this purpose. Mr. Chubb and assistants disinterred the body and found decomposition had only left a few traces on the skull, otherwise the bones were in perfect condition. By a process of soaking them in water at a temperature of about 90°, and afterward in an immersion of benzine for two months, with exposure to sunlight, all the flesh and grease were eliminated, leaving the bones in a polished and snowy-white state. The one hundred and fifty or more bones are preserved, tabulated and encased in a series of bureaulike drawers in Mr. Chubb's laboratory up in the topmost east tower of the museum.

To aid in carrying on his research work, Mr. Chubb has in his laboratory an extensive and varied study collection, at present representing over thirty specimens, ranging from the young two-day-old colt to the thirty-nine-year-old veteran. Mr. Chubb is in touch with many of the large stock-breeding farms, and when by death or accident a promising specimen is to be obtained, he acquires it, if possible. One such is the famous horse "Nimmur," son of Kismet, a desert Arab.

Probably one of the most exciting and novel methods of obtaining study material for the mounting are the series of remarkable overhead instantaneous photographs now being made. Ordinary side views have been taken before, but up to the

present no top ones have ever been secured. The object is to obtain pictures of the spinal column of the horse when moving at full speed. The writer, by special courtesy of Professor Osborn and Mr. Chubb, was afforded special facilities for witnessing, and obtaining some photographs showing, the novel and daring manner in which Mr. Chubb, suspended over fifty feet or more in the air, in a narrow rope-sling seat, procured some wonderful snap-shots of a running horse.

The horse used was an ex-racer of fine proportion, furnished by a near-by riding academy. In order to follow the movement of the spine and have it perfectly visible on a photographic plate, a white line was painted along the tip of the back and three spots on the hip and flank, designed to outline the various movements of the pelvis and hip-joints. After these preliminaries, Mr. Chubb got into his rope-sling seat, arranged on a pulley, and was hoisted up fifty feet or more. The photographic instrument was hung downward in a reverse position, and to relieve the strain on the operator and allow free control of the hands, the weight of the box was held by two cords attached to the overhead pulley. The horse and sulky were then driven directly beneath, and a sharp focus obtained on the top of the back. The driver sent his steed at full breakneck speed along the roadway, and at the critical moment, when the reflection of the animal appeared in the mirror of the camera above, the shutter was sprung. The camera used for this high speed is a four by five, with focal plane shutter, the exposure being one-thousandth part of a second.

After the present series of overhead photographs have been studied, and after consulting a large number of the best side-view pictures taken of Sysonby in life on the racetrack, a characteristic pose will be determined upon. By a series of strings with weights attached, which can be raised or lowered, the various bones will be temporarily assembled. By manipulating the cords, all the parts can be moved and changed until the final and correct attitude is reached. It will probably take six months or a year, owing to the extensive and painstaking amount of experimental research and labor, before the skeleton is ready for exhibition.

BOOKS AND READING

Suggestions for the Month's Reading

Fiction

DeMorgan: Somehow Good. A great novel. Reviewed in the March number.

London: The Iron Heel. Revolutionary Socialism in fiction. Reviewed in this number.

Oppenheim: The Great Secret. A book of mystery. Reviewed in this number.

Religion

Hall: The Inward Light. A plea for Buddhism. Reviewed in this number.

Hoffman: The Sphere of Religion. An interesting treatment of religion in general. Reviewed in this number.

History

McCormick: The Tragedy of Russia in Pacific Asia. A vivid account of the Russo-Japanese War. Reviewed in the March number.

Cromer: Modern Egypt. A monumental work by one of the makers of history. To be reviewed in the May number.

Ladd: In Korea with Marquis Ito. A timely discussion of a highly important topic. To be reviewed in the May number.

Therapeutics

Quackenbos: Hypnotic Therapeutics. Described by its title. Reviewed in this number.

Fiction

In "*The Iron Heel*" (Macmillan, \$1.50) Jack London has every opportunity for displaying his conception of a story and his socialistic enthusiasm. It is the account of an incredibly bloody revolution which Mr. London expects will begin in 1912. In it the oligarchs—or the Iron Heel—will stamp out the patriot. Like all of Mr. London's work the book grips the reader, but it is crude in construction and in argument. Just at present the oligarchs seem to be having troubles of their own.

Luce & Co. has published a translation of Fogazzaro's "*Politician*" (\$1.50), a work, like all of its author's, of serious significance. It centers about the career of a young Italian statesman and brings the reader into closest touch with that type of Italian with whom Fogazzaro can so well deal. Throughout the book there runs that idealistic strain that marks all the author's work.

Louis Joseph Vance has written another tale of adventure and mystery, "*The Black Bag*" (Bobbs-Merrill Co., \$1.50). It is an account of the struggle to obtain a bag of jewels on the part of a group of rogues, one of whom convinces a charming young woman that he is her father. There is no particular plot to the book, but one situation follows another with the rapidity of a nightmare. You do not quite see what it is all about; but you read the book.

E. Phillips Oppenheim, in "*The Great Secret*" (Little, Brown & Co., \$1.50), adds another to his rapidly growing list of exciting stories. It begins with mystery and ends with excitement: could one say more?—only, as in the case of "*The Black Bag*," we wonder what the excitement is all about.

An unusual book is "*The Country House*," by John Galsworthy (Putnam's, \$1.50), and one

dealing with a group of very sordid characters, fashionable though they are. It is a story, and rather realistic at that, of the development of a love affair which ought to have culminated in a divorce, but was stopped by the mother of the man. The best element of the book is its character-drawing; and that is certainly admirable.

"*Hester of the Hills*," by Grover Clay (L. C. Page, \$1.50), is a well-written, up-to-date story of the courtship and marriage of a physically beautiful young woman of the backwoods. She is found by a wealthy young man who desires to perpetuate his family and name in the best possible way, and is married very largely on such physiological reasons. Apart from this somewhat unpleasant *motif* the book has some good character sketches and is not without interest.

In a characteristic mingling of humor and pathos Mark Twain writes "*A Horse's Tale*" (Harpers, \$1), allowing a finely bred animal belonging to Buffalo Bill to tell the story of his life, more particularly that portion of it which deals with his small mistress, the orphaned niece of an American officer stationed on the frontier. The child is Spanish on her mother's side, but loyally American nevertheless. She has adventures galore, and takes her good horse, a present from its owner, back to Spain with her, where he is lost. The end is tragic—needlessly and unexpectedly so.

A girl who tends the lunch-counter in a railway eating-house is not what might be called the conventional heroine in bookland; but Carl Edwin Harriman in his story "*Sadie*" (Appleton, \$1.50) has made such a girl the heroine of a story that is full of sentiment, and good sentiment, too. Its scene is laid on the edge of a desert, and "*Sadie*" finds herself in a somewhat mixed company, but she carries herself in a most womanly fashion, and when she finally falls in love with the right person, the reader feels that all is well.

Religion

Several years ago H. Fielding Hall published "The Soul of the People," in which he set forth some of the phases of Buddhism. He has just published another book, "*The Inward Light*" (Macmillan, \$1.75), in which the subject is carried still further, but with larger knowledge and, if possible, deeper sympathy. The description is cast loosely in the form of a story, recounting the experiences of an Englishman who, through an accident, came to stay in a Buddhist monastery. But it is not a story; it is really a most attractive exposition of what Mr. Hall believes to be the spirit of Buddhism. As a study in comparative religion it has value; but it will have even more value if one reads it regardless of whether or not it be Buddhism. It is really a philosophy of life, which takes Buddhism for its text and sets forth an ideal conception of religion and of life. There is enough local color in it to take it out of the region of the abstract, but it is no mere study of Burmese customs, even highly idealized. It is Christian as truly as Buddhist, and one can not but recognize the truth that lies within it, even though he rejects certain conceptions like transmigration of souls. In many ways it is one of the most remarkable religious books of the year.

"*The Sphere of Religion*," by Frank Sargent Hoffman, is a worthy complement of the two preceding volumes, "*The Sphere of the State*" and "*The Sphere of Science*" (Putnam's, \$1.50). Professor Hoffman has produced a work of wide sweep and one which combines in a rather remarkable way the philosophy of religion and a brief epitome of comparative religion. In this latter field Professor Hoffman covers not only the sacred books of the East, but also Mormonism, Christian Science, and Madam Blavatsky. After having thus given the various phases which religion has assumed, he goes on to describe its relation to education, property and politics, closing with three admirable chapters on theology, morality and God. The book is one which will serve as a capital introduction to the study of religion, whether on the part of the general reader or in a college course. Professor Hoffman's positions are in sympathy with modern scientific tendencies, but are by no means radical. It is the sort of book which has been really needed.

President Hadley has obeyed the "request of a number of graduates and friends" of Yale University, and published the "*Baccalaureate Addresses*" (Scribners, 1907, \$1 net) he has delivered since the year 1900, together with several talks given on opening Sundays of the college year. These addresses are marked by a splendid vigor and breadth of thought. The appeal is to the finest manly qualities of the Yale student, and while everything that approaches dogmatic or confessional Christianity is kept resolutely at a distance, the addresses are deeply religious and unhesitatingly Christian. The idea that recurs oftenest, and perhaps, could with fairness be called the burden of President Hadley's sermons, is this, that the men of Yale must not neglect the finest training of themselves for the service of their generation. And the epigrammatic sentence in the address in "The Christian Ideal" might well be called his text: "There is no suc-

cess so great as to be worth much if it leads a man to stop working; and no failure so great as to be irreparable unless it leads a man to stop trying."

The second volume of "*Systematic Theology*," by A. H. Strong, of Rochester Theological Seminary, has been issued by the American Baptist Publication Society (\$2.50 net). It completes the discussion of God and extends over the doctrines of man and salvation. The general method of Dr. Strong's work is too well known to demand description. The work is really a syllabus of lectures rather than a full discussion.

The University of Chicago Press has issued as a memorial volume "*The English Reformation and Puritanism*" (\$2.50 net), by Eri B. Hulbert, late Dean of the Divinity School. The volume consists of some of Dr. Hulbert's class lectures which have been left in almost the same form in which he gave them. His old students can not read a page without seeing before them the vigorous, unconventional lecturer and the altogether vital character. Appended to the volume are a number of Dr. Hulbert's essays upon historical and theological subjects. There is also a brief memoir and a group of memorial addresses. The volume is edited by A. R. E. Wyant and is altogether a worthy memorial of a noble man.

Philosophy and Essays

"*Hypnotic Therapeutics in Theory and Practice*," by John Duncan Quackenbos, A.M., M.D. (Harpers, \$2 net), will be considered a classic in hypnotic literature. The author is well known in medical circles, and by his many previous contributions to the cure of physical, mental and moral diseases by suggestive and hypnotic methods. Dr. Quackenbos distinctly avers that to the candid inquirer hypnotic treatment in the hands of those who thoroughly understand its philosophy, and are possessed of sufficient principle to use it conscientiously, will be seen to be unqualifiedly safe. Dr. John Grinker is quoted as stating that although he had hypnotized hundreds of persons, he had never seen any ill effects from its use. Bernheim, Liebault, Ford, Mettestrand, and a host of others who had practiced hypnotic therapeutics in thousands of instances, testified to similar experiences. In the seven thousand cases treated by Dr. Quackenbos, the most desirable results had been achieved. Dr. Quackenbos contends that the phenomena of hypnotism are not pathological to any greater degree than those of every night sleep. He positively claims that the possibilities of sub-conscious crime "dance upon nothing," and that "there is no such thing as a sub-conscious criminal." But he maintains with great earnestness that the abuse of hypnotic suggestion should be restricted by law, and it should be employed only by reputable physicians and properly qualified philanthropists.

Professor Francke, of Harvard University, has collected into an attractive volume, "*German Ideals of To-day*" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co, \$1.50 net), several literary and artistic essays concerning the state of present German culture. The essays are, with one exception, reprinted from the *Atlantic Monthly*, the *Nation*, the *Outlook*, and

the *Boston Transcript*. Especially interesting is the chapter entitled "Sketches of Contemporary German Letters," which consist of a number of short critical estimates of the latest dramatic productions of Hauptmann, Sardermann and Widmann, together with letters on Herman Grimm and Paulsen, and an essay on "The Struggle for Individuality on the German Stage." In the spring of 1906 a new chair of "German Culture" was created at Harvard, and Professor Francke was chosen to fill it. These essays may be considered as the first fruits of that new creation. Professor Francke, in making his salutatory address to the students, distinguishes culture from civilization as being the "content of national consciousness" of which "civilization is the form." Culture is the study of the inner life of a people—as it expresses itself in its religious and philosophical movements, its art and literature; while civilization is rather the study of "the outward conditions and conduct of life," political, economic, legal, ecclesiastical institutions, and "friendly or hostile contact with other nations." By his large fund of optimistic idealism and his thorough acquaintance with all the best phases of German culture, medieval and modern, Professor Francke is perhaps the best equipped man in our country for the duties of the new Harvard professorship.

Miscellaneous

Robert Rudd Whiting's latest book, "*A Ball of Yarn*" (Paul Elder & Co., 75 cents net), is unwound very neatly into four skeins of three yarns each. These are no ordinary yarns. Their lively colors will go well with dull moods and will not fade under any test for humor. Such artistic whoppers ought to assure Mr. Whiting's place among our foremost humorists.

Small, Maynard & Co. have issued two beautiful little books made up of selections from the early American humorists. The choice of material is well made, although of necessity they are rather brief. Even when they are not very humorous they give one an idea of days that are long since past.

Brewer, Barse & Co., Chicago, have issued a little volume of "*Toasts and After-dinner Stories*" which may be of service to persons who are in a position to need the assistance it renders. Some of the stories are good and some of them are both good and old, others are of neither sort.

Dr. Daniel S. Sager, in "*The Art of Living in Good Health*" (Frederick A. Stokes Company, \$1.35), gives a very readable guide to every-day well-being. He is especially interesting in his discussions of dietetics and, although one may not go all the way with him as to raw foods and as to the vegetarian diet, he will help to lead any one to better health.

The Macmillans are rendering a great service to the man with good literary taste and small income, for they are republishing the *Eversley edition of the works of Lord Tennyson* in six volumes (\$1.50 each). This edition has been authoritative for something like fifteen years, but in its new shape it contains Lord Tennyson's own notes on his poems, and is in such form as to be a delight to the eye and to the hand. The value

of the notes is considerable. Without containing elaborate explanation they specify precisely the occasion of the writing of many of the poems and explain the allusions.

A book to be recommended to those who are planning a country house is "*Our Country Home*," by Frances Kingsley Hutchinson (A. C. McClurg & Co., \$2 net). It is a charming account of the laying out of a country place from the time the ground was first broken to the completion of the gardens and fountains and hedges. The book is illustrated by a large number of reproductions from photographs of the estate in different stages of its development, and altogether makes delightful reading. More than that, it is a serviceable book for those who wish to profit by another's success in planning a country estate.

Text-books

Among the numerous manuals of English literary history Professor William H. Crawshaw's recent volume, "*The Making of English Literature*" (D. C. Heath & Co.), will find a place of usefulness. It differs from others of the sort in devoting less space to general history and biography, and more to tracing the general literary movements of each age. Illustrative quotations are liberally supplied at every point, and the student is constantly reminded that the study about literature is not the study of literature itself and can not be substituted for it. There are numerous illustrations and a useful bibliography.

"*Elementary English Composition*," by Tuley F. Huntington (New York: The Macmillan Company), is one of the newer sort of high school rhetorics, full of reality and concrete suggestion, with a minimum of theory. Its examples are chosen chiefly from contemporary writers. Practical hints on such points of grammar and punctuation as are commonly neglected add to the value of the book. In the hands of a competent teacher it should give vitality and interest to a subject commonly disliked by boys and girls.

Another high school manual of composition, devoted entirely to one branch of writing, is "*Exposition in Class Room Practice*," by Theodore C. Mitchell and George R. Carpenter (New York: The Macmillan Company, 70 cents). It deals helpfully with the important subject of outlines and summaries, and applies the principles of exposition to the classroom recitation and the written examination.

The concluding chapters of Myers' "*Medieval and Modern History*," dealing with the period since 1815, have been separately printed under the title "*Outlines of Nineteenth Century History*" (Ginn & Co., 75 cents). It forms a convenient summary of the century for school or private reading.

A new and revised edition of James Rhoades' translation into English verse of Vergil's "*Aeneid*" has been issued by Longmans, Green & Co., 85 cents net. The first edition appeared in 1893, and the appreciation which the republication of Mr. Rhoades' admirable work implies is indeed gratifying.

THE CALENDAR OF THE MONTH

United States

Alaska.—February 13.—Troops sent to Fairbanks to preserve order during the mining strike.

Administration.—February 17.—Frank H. Hitchcock, first assistant postmaster-general, resigned, to become manager of Secretary Taft's presidential campaign. Dr. Charles P. Grandfield succeeded.

Anarchists.—February 23.—Guiseppe Alia, who declared himself an anarchist, shot and killed Father Leo Heinrichs as he was administering the sacrament in St. Elizabeth's church, Denver.

—March 2.—An anarchist, a Russian Jew, named Averbuch, attempted to assassinate Chief of Police Shippy of Chicago, and was himself killed by the chief.

Automobile Race.—February 12.—Six automobiles, one of which is American built, started from New York city, on an endurance test, to Paris by way of Alaska, Siberia and Russia.

Casualties.—February 14.—Twelve lives lost by the foundering of the ship Emily Reed off the coast of Oregon.

—February 17.—A flood in Pittsburg, Pa., caused damage conservatively estimated at \$2,000,000. Over 20,000 men thrown out of work temporarily. Three deaths reported. In Southern Indiana thousands of acres of wheat lands submerged. Schools closed and trains ceased running on several roads. Much damage in Ohio also. . . . Twenty-eight miners entombed in a colliery near Mount Carmel, Pa.

—February 28.—Seventy-six men killed in an explosion in La Rosita mine, near San Juan de Sabinas, Mexico. The miners were mostly Japanese.

—March 4.—Fire in the North Collinwood public school, Cleveland, Ohio, caused death of 164 children and two teachers.

Congress.—February 26.—The bill to codify and revise the criminal laws of the United States, passed by the Senate, with an amendment penalizing the improper giving out by government officials of information affecting the market value of products of the soil.

—March 2.—A bill to reorganize the consular service passed the Senate.

Corporations and Saloons.—February 17.—Attorney-General Byers rendered a decision to the executive council of Des Moines that saloons can not lawfully be owned or controlled by corporations, including breweries.

Deaths.—February 20.—Asbury C. Latimer, United States Senator from South Carolina.

—February 21.—Harriet G. Hosmer, sculptor, aged seventy-eight. . . . Crosby S. Noyes, editor and journalist, aged 82.

—February 23.—Bulus Saxton, brigadier-gen-

eral U. S. A., aged eighty-four. . . . Henry Y. Satterlee, Episcopal bishop of Washington, aged sixty-four.

—February 24.—Edward Gaylord Bourne, historian.

—March 4.—Redfield Proctor, United States Senator from Vermont since 1891, aged seventy-six.

—March 7.—Frederick Warren Freer, painter and etcher.

Education.—February 25.—The Court of Appeals rendered a decision which sets free \$3,000,000 bequeathed by Wallace C. Andrews for the

IN OHIO

Woodman, in the Chicago *Inter Ocean*

establishment of an industrial school for girls at Willoughby, Ohio, after a contest of nine years.

—March 4.—Edward Dwight Eaton inaugurated president of Beloit College, from which he resigned about two years ago on account of ill health. The endowment fund for the college has nearly reached the \$1,000,000 mark.

—March 10.—The trustees of Swarthmore College voted to reject the bequest of Anna S. Jeanes, conditioned on the giving up of athletics.

Franchise.—February 14.—The State Constitutional amendment designed to disfranchise the colored voters of Maryland passed the State Senate.

Insurance.—February 13.—Foster M. Voorhees, former governor of New Jersey, and president of the Bankers' Life Insurance Company, and Frank G. Combes, its secretary, indicted by a special grand jury.

Labor.—February 14.—Seventy-two delegates from thirteen labor organizations to the "dock and cotton council" indicted at New Orleans by the federal grand jury for interference with the trade of the United States with foreign countries.

—February 17.—At Biddeford, Maine, cotton mills employing 6,000 operatives went back on full time. Several mills and factories in Connecticut resumed work. Potteries and sheet and tinplate works at Wellsville, Ohio, resumed, giving work to over 1,700 men.

—February 20.—The Illinois Supreme Court declared that a labor union's "unfair list" is in effect a boycott and therefore illegal. The court also declared "peaceful" picketing unlawful.

—February 24.—The United States Supreme Court declared constitutional the Washington state law forbidding employers forcing women to work more than ten hours a day. Decision given in case wherein a laundryman claimed the law put a limitation on the power of contract.

—February 25.—Iron and steel works in Reading, Pa., employing nearly 1,000 men, resumed operations. Mines reopened at Washington, Pa., gave employment to over 1,000 men.

—March 6.—The American Car and Foundry Company, of St. Louis, shut down, throwing 3,000 men out of employment. Cotton mills in Providence go on a three-quarter time schedule.

—March 10.—Five rubber factories in Massachusetts and Rhode Island have been closed for several weeks, throwing 7,000 employees out of work.

Negro Soldiers.—February 25.—Eight of the thirteen members of the Senate Committee on Military Affairs voted to sustain President Roosevelt in his discharge of the negro soldiers of the Twenty-fifth United States Infantry.

Primary Law.—February 21.—Governor Deen, of Illinois, signed the Oglesby direct primary law, which goes into effect July 1.

Prohibition.—February 13.—The Mississippi State Senate passed the statutory prohibition bill by a vote of 36 to 4, to take effect December 31. The house passed it several days previous.

—February 14.—The proposed constitutional amendment in West Virginia to prevent manufacture and sale of liquor except for scientific and medical purposes, which passed the house by a vote of 67 to 12, was defeated in the state senate.

—February 18.—An amendment to establish constitutional prohibition defeated in the lower house of the Mississippi legislature by a lack of two votes.

Railroads.—February 13.—The Chicago, Cincinnati & Louisville Railroad placed in the hands of a receiver. The banker upon whose application the receiver was appointed stated that his act was a friendly one.

—February 17.—By a majority vote the South Carolina State Senate voted against the railroad rate bill.

—February 19.—President Roosevelt sent letter to the Interstate Commerce Commission asking it to investigate charges made by railroads that drastic laws have cut down earnings and compelled reduction of wages.

—February 24.—The United States Supreme Court declared that the Hepburn railroad rate law of 1906 does not repeal the Elkins law as to offenses committed prior to that time. The decision was given in the case of the Great Northern Railway fined for illegal rebating.

—February 25.—Failure between the Southern Railway Company and its employees to reach an agreement in regard to reduction of wages resulted in President Finley announcing that he would refer the case to the Interstate Commerce Commission and to the Commissioner of Labor, under the Erdmann Act.

—February 26.—The International and Great Northern Railroad Company put into the hands of a receiver by United States Circuit Judge A. P. McCormick, for having defaulted in payment of bond interest.

—February 28.—Judge Thompson ruled that Judge Grosscup and the other directors of the Mattoon City Railway could not be held under the indictment of the grand jury for responsibility in the wreck at Charleston, Ill.

—March 2.—Missouri railroad officials stated that 10,000 employees in the operating, mechanical and clerical departments had been recently dismissed to offset heavy revenue losses. Five commercial offices of the company have been closed. . . . The Erie Railroad announced a reduction in the wage-scale for engine and train crews. . . . The Great Northern Railway closed all the telegraph stations possible. Between Grand Forks and Devil's Lake the block system has been put out of commission.

—March 3.—Indictments returned by the federal grand jury at St. Louis charging the St.

AT HIS CHARIOT WHEELS Gregg, in the *Atlanta Constitution*

Municipal.—February 11.—Leavenworth, Kansas, voted to adopt the commission form of government similar to that of Galveston.

—February 18.—The Des Moines plan of city government by a commission declared constitutional in every detail, by the Iowa Supreme Court.

—March 8.—The Supreme Court of California refused a rehearing in the case of former Mayor Eugene E. Schmitz, of San Francisco, sustaining opinion that indictment was not valid.

Louis & San Francisco Railroad Company with granting rebates, and the Chapman and Dewey Lumber Company, of Kansas City, with accepting same.

Religion.—February 12.—Francis Greenwood Peabody, of Harvard, elected president of the Religious Education Association.

—February 16.—An encyclical issued by Pope Pius read in the Catholic churches of Denver and to be shortly announced everywhere, regulated Catholic marriages. The principal provision declared null and void after Easter all marriages by civil magistrates except in the absence of a priest for more than a month.

Senatorial.—February 28.—William O. Bradley, Republican, and former governor of Kentucky, elected United States senator from that state.

Submarine Tunnel.—February 25.—The \$60,000,000 tunnel and submarine system under the Hudson, between New York and New Jersey, opened.

Tobacco War.—February 16.—Night riders, 300 strong, terrorized Eddyville, Ky., and whipped Police Judge C. W. Rucher, Lesel Woods, former city marshal, two other white men and six negroes. County Judge W. L. Crumbaugh was awakened and informed that similar punishment awaited him if he was not friendly to the tobacco growers' organization.

—February 26.—Governor Willson, in a special message to the Kentucky legislature, urged the necessity for action to protect the liberties of the people and to end the conditions bordering on anarchy.

—March 6.—The Crecelius bill providing a fine for any one who violates his agreement to pool tobacco, passed by the state senate of Kentucky. It had already passed the lower house.

—March 10.—The Kentucky night riders entered Birmingham, killing one negro and injuring and whipping others. All negroes were warned to leave the town. The night riders burned 15,000 pounds of tobacco belonging to a wealthy planter at Brooksville, Ky.

Trusts.—February 26.—The Supreme Court of Texas affirmed the judgment against the Waters-Pierce Oil Company for violating the Texas anti-trust laws. The case will be carried to the Supreme Court of the United States.

Philippines

Elections.—February 11.—Senor Gomez unseated by a vote of 40 to 35.

Argentina

Attempted Assassination.—February 28.—A bomb thrown at J. Figueroa Alcorta, president of the Republic, as he was alighting from his carriage, but it failed to explode.

Elections.—March 9.—The results of the elections sustained the policy of the government throughout the republic.

British Empire

Congo.—February 26.—The House of Commons adopted a resolution asking the government "to do all in its power to secure the transfer of the control of the Congo Independent State" or to take measures to insure the carrying out of the provisions of the Berlin Act. [See Events.]

Death.—February 13.—Sir James Knowles, architect, and founder and editor of the *Nineteenth Century and After*, aged seventy-seven.

Franchise for Women.—February 28.—The woman's enfranchisement bill passed its second reading in the House of Commons by a vote of 271 to 92, and was then referred to a committee of the whole.

France

Comedian.—February 11.—Coquelin Cadet, otherwise Ernest Alexandre Honoré Coquelin, famous comedian, taken to a sanitarium because of insanity which specialists have been unable to cure.

Death.—February 20.—Salvatore Marchesi, Marquis de Castrone, Italian composer and singer, aged eighty-two. He was a co-worker with Garibaldi and became a political refugee.

Income Tax.—February 28.—The principle of the government's income tax bill indorsed by 386 votes to 146, in the Chamber of Deputies.

Switzerland

Avalanche.—March 1.—Thirteen persons killed and fifteen injured by the descent of an avalanche near the village of Gappenstein.

Italy

Anti-Clerical Riot.—February 16.—In connection with the annual anti-clerical demonstration commemorating the death of Giordano Bruno serious conflicts ensued with the troops. Many persons were wounded.

Impeachment.—February 24.—Nunzio Nasi, formerly minister of public instruction, sentenced to imprisonment for eleven months and twenty days for defrauding the treasury of thousands of dollars. The case was the first in Italy in which a minister was impeached.

Religious Education.—February 27.—The motion in the Chamber of Deputies to abolish religious teaching in the schools defeated by a vote of 333 to 106.

Belgium

Congo.—February 23.—King Leopold demanded that the special fund which was to replace the crown domain be placed under his control and that he be given \$50,000,000 in addition to carry out various projects.

—March 5.—The text of the new annexation treaty submitted to parliament. [See Events.]

German Empire

Death.—February 20.—Peter Janssen, painter and director of the Dueseldorf Academy of Art, aged sixty-three.

Lottery.—February 11.—For issuing circulars relating to a Danish lottery Otto Hugo fined \$375, or in default, 100 days' imprisonment. The state's attorney urged a fine of \$2,000,000 or 1,461 years' imprisonment.

Denmark

Suffrage.—February 26.—The universal municipal suffrage bill passed its third reading in the landsting by 32 votes to 29.

Austria-Hungary

Death.—February 17.—Ignaz Edler von Plemer, Austrian veteran statesman, aged ninety-eight.

—February 28.—Baroness Pauline Walloffen-Lucca, noted singer, aged sixty-seven.

Turkish Empire

Armenian Raid.—February 21.—The Turks raided the frontier village of Carina, in the province of Van, and captured fifty-one Armenians whom they accused of belonging to a revolutionary society. Court martial held on the spot, eight men sentenced to death, and forty-three to life imprisonment.

Army.—February 17.—The army reserve forces have been called to the colors and are proceeding to the frontier. Hostilities apprehended at Tiflis.

Russian Empire

Anti-Jewish Riots.—February 13.—Although the leaders of anti-Jewish mobs have been tried and convicted under the law, nearly all of them are pardoned by the Czar.

Douma.—February 26.—Emperor Nicholas received at Tsarskoe-Selo a deputation from the douma to the number of 320 and representing all parties except the Constitutional Democrats, the Radicals and the Poles.

Finland.—February 16.—Governor-General Gerhard resigned. General Bekmann, commanding troops in Finland, succeeded him.

Stoessel.—February 20.—Lieutenant-General Stoessel condemned to death by a military court for the surrender of Port Arthur to the Japanese. The court recommended that the sentence be commuted to ten years' imprisonment in a fortress and exclusion from the service.

—February 25.—Lieutenant-General Stoessel petitioned Emperor Nicholas for a full pardon.

Terrorists.—February 20.—Some fifty men and women arrested in St. Petersburg for plotting against lives of persons of high rank. The majority were heavily armed, some having bombs. Three policemen were wounded and one killed while making the arrests. One of the women arrested was carrying dynamite in her muff, and a man with her had an infernal machine flat under his belt.

—February 27.—A military court condemned to death seven terrorists charged with complicity in an attempt upon the lives of Grand Duke Nicholas Nikolaievitch and M. Chtehglovitoff, minister of justice, and sentenced three others to fifteen years' imprisonment at hard labor.

Viborg Manifesto.—February 11.—For sign-

ing the Viborg manifesto, Feodorovich Kokoshine, professor in Moscow University, and a leader of the Constitutional Democrats, was expelled from the Moscow nobility by a vote of 260 against 92.

Morocco

Revolt.—February 19.—The French defeated near Fedala by Mulai Hafid's followers. French outposts beyond Settatt driven in and French forces cut off by Moors from relief.

—March 1.—General d'Amade and troops attacked by Mdraka tribesmen, who were repulsed with heavy loss. Two French officers killed and eight men.

—March 9.—General d'Amade inflicted a decisive defeat on the Madrakas, the Mzabs and a force of Mulai Hafid's adherents. The enemy suffered great loss.

Persia

Attempted Assassination.—February 28.—Two bombs thrown at the Shah's automobile, one of which tore it to pieces and killed three of its escorts. The Shah escaped death because he had taken the precaution to occupy another automobile.

Chinese Empire

Boxers.—February 18.—General Tung Fuh Siang, leader of the Boxers in the uprising of 1900, died in banishment at Kan Su.

Japan.—March 4.—Japan demanded release of steamship Tatsu, seized at Macao on February 7 on suspicion it was bringing arms and ammunition for the revolutionaries; also an apology and indemnity.

—March 6.—China offered to release the Tatsu and apologize, but purposed to hold the captured munitions pending an investigation by a mixed tribunal.

—March 9.—A monster mass-meeting held at Canton to resist the Japanese demands.

Japan

Emigration.—February 19.—The government sent to the United States ambassador, O'Brien, its reply to America on emigration. Further restrictions conceded.

Financial Budget.—February 13.—After an exciting debate which developed into a riot in the house of representatives, the financial budget was passed by a majority of 102. More than one-half of the budget is expended in armaments.

Fire.—March 9.—In Niigata, a seaport on the western coast, 1,500 houses totally destroyed by fire, with heavy loss of life.

[See Chinese Empire.]

The World To-Day

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The Anarchist Really to be Feared

THE country is passing through its periodic panic over anarchists. Just how far its anxiety is warranted nobody pretends to say. Revolutionary anarchy and insanity are so much alike that it may very well be that some of the so-called anarchists are nothing more nor less than lunatics. A little common sense will cure us of our fears.

* * *

But there is another sort of anarchy far more prevalent and far more dangerous—the anarchy of lawlessness.

Down in Kentucky property is being destroyed and men are being killed in a war about the price of tobacco. The criminals are supposed to be respectable. But community sentiment does not check the violence, and the local and state officials are doing next to nothing. Bands of disguised men rove about by night, burning warehouses, calling men who will not join the farmers' trust to their doors and shooting them.

They are as truly terrorists as those of Russia; only the terrorists in Russia are fighting to give a nation liberty. The "night riders" of Kentucky burn and kill and terrorize to raise the price of tobacco.

* * *

In several states, notably in New York, men are trying to cut out the cancer of race-track betting. All over the country men are "playing ponies" and bringing ruin upon themselves and their families.

No one believes that horse-racing is conducted honestly, and everybody believes that pool-selling is one of the worst forms of vice existing. Yet it is all but impossible to get respectable members of the community

to support proper restrictions, and any legislature contemplating such a step is assailed by lobbies with all but unlimited money.

It is the spirit of anarchy again—an anarchy no less dangerous because it prefers to corrupt character than to burn up property.

* * *

The country over, there is a tremendous movement against the saloon. State after state has passed its local option or prohibition legislation, and small communities have voted "no license." The liquor traffic was never so dangerous or in such danger as to-day.

Yet there are men of the highest personal character who insist that such legislation is an affront to "liberty," a recurrence to the "blue laws" of the Puritans, and should not be enforced after it has been passed.

Seven successive juries have failed to bring in a verdict of guilty in the case of liquor dealers who have broken the Sunday-closing law of Illinois.

* * *

Minorities have rights, but so have the majorities. That which is injurious to a community must sometimes be endured because it is the less of two evils. Most intelligent men are convinced that the saloon is a social evil. They differ as to the best way by which that evil can be regulated or eliminated.

Honest men have the right to differ. But when a minority or a majority refuses to obey laws the country faces rebellion or anarchy.

Agitation in behalf of the saloon is as permissible as agitation against the saloon. But after the people have expressed their will at the polls, the man who does not recognize and obey that will, be he "wet" or "dry," gambler or clergyman, should be punished.

And if anarchy ever does come, distilleries will be destroyed sooner than churches.

* * *

It is this anarchic tendency in American life that should cause us real anxiety. Arson and murder, pool-selling and saloons are bad in themselves, but that public opinion which justifies lawlessness in their behalf is infinitely worse.

A man's sentiments are no measure of legality. A good citizen may occasionally feel that he must become a martyr in order to show forth the injustice of a certain law. But a man who breaks a law in the interest of that which is bad in itself, is worse than an anarchist. He is a fool.

And a democracy in which law-breaking is condoned will be a Paradise of Fools.

EVENTS OF THE MONTH

Foreign Affairs

The difficulty between Japan and China over the seizure by Chinese customs officials of the Tatsu, a Japanese steamer loaded with arms and ammunition, has been settled, on the whole with the larger advantage accruing to China. It is true that the vessel has been returned to Japan, and that the Japanese flag upon it has been saluted by a Chinese war-ship; that China is to purchase the munitions of war captured on the steamer, and that China's foreign office has apologized to Japan for the seizure of the vessel. But all this is but a technical victory for Japan. The main purpose of the action on the part of China has been accomplished. The attention of the powers has been called to the high-handed operations of Japan in shipping ammunition and arms to Chinese rebels. What is more, Japan has agreed to exercise strict control over the exportation of arms to China.

This action of the Chinese government, together with a boycott which has been instigated against Japanese goods, is an indication of the new spirit that is coming over the Chinese empire. At the close of the Russo-Japanese War, Japan was regarded the head of the Asiatic world. During the past year or two, however, China has been awakening fully as rapidly as ever did Japan. Reform has been steadily progressing, and what is quite as important, a new national spirit is being developed. Those who are furthering this condition of affairs view with apprehension the policy of Japan in Manchuria as interpreted by the fate of Korea. China, while more cautious than Japan in taking up western civilization, is after all the country of incalculably

greater resources. The Tatsu affair is simply a straw showing the direction the wind is blowing. China does not propose to be subservient to Japan. The next five years will show that its determination is justified.

The growing spirit of hostility against Japan among Asiatics gets a further illustration from the assassination of Hon. Durham W. Stevens, the American acting as advisor of the Japanese in Korea, by Koreans in San Francisco. The ground for such an act was the alleged unfriendliness of Mr. Stevens to the Koreans in that he approved and forwarded the Japanese administration in their unhappy country. The same motive of hostility to Japan was in the attack by Koreans in Seoul upon a missionary who was suspected of favoring Japan. None the less, subject to criticism on legal grounds as Japan's treatment of Korea is, its policy there is probably the one hope of the degenerate nation it has appropriated.

"You'd better stop your teasing, boy!"
Donahoy, in the Cleveland Plain Dealer

The ill-health of Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman has finally compelled his resignation of the office of Prime Minister of Great Britain. It was forwarded to Biarritz, where King Edward was staying, and was accepted by him. The King, in conformity with the recommendation of Sir Henry, summoned Mr. Asquith to a conference, and appointed him to the premiership and to the post of first lord of the treasury. The make-up of his cabinet has not yet been announced. Meanwhile, of necessity, the government party being without a leader, the House of Commons adjourned until after the Easter vacation. Amid the tributes of appreciation of the ex-premier, it is interesting to notice those of his political opponents, Mr. Balfour and the Irish leader, Mr. Redmond. The latter asserted that "there is not an Irish Nationalist in any part of the world who will not deeply deplore that this consistent, brave, honorable friend of Ireland has been taken from the arena of public life." His forty years of service for the nation has won the respect of all parties. Herbert Henry

HANDS ACROSS THE SEA

This doesn't look much like the war we were reading about in the yellow journals a few weeks ago.

Haughton, in the *Danish Evening Herald*

An interesting commentary upon the status of eastern Asia is to be seen in the

America. Recent action of the United States consul at Harbin, Japan and Russia.

Under instructions from Washington, he has taken the position that the Chinese and not the Russians are supreme in Manchuria, and has consequently remonstrated against Russian administration of the railway zone in Harbin. The Japanese are supporting the Russians on the ground that the Portsmouth Treaty gave both Russia and Japan administrative rights in Manchuria, and that these look particularly to the administration of the Chinese Eastern Railway. They further insist that the question of administering the railway is not connected with the "open door." The situation is undoubtedly delicate and the attitude of Japan is not likely to be one of concession. The question has been a trifle further complicated by the attack made by four Japanese upon the native staff of the American consulate in Mukden. But all this will be settled by diplomacy. It is the rise of Japan on that is significant.

STONE DEAD

Morris, in the *Spokane Spokesman-Review*

etc. This idea was sufficient to stir up a hornet's nest in the daily press, in which Great Britain's customary jealousy of German progress, especially in the direction of naval strength, formed the irritating feature. A straightforward explanation by Lord Tweedmouth and Earl Grey, Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, to whom the letter had been shown, to the effect that the letter was personal and informal and not designed for publication in any way, sufficed to calm down the indignation. But the commotion had been sufficient to attract the notice of the foreign press, so that the London Times was stigmatized in Germany as "an anti-German mischief-maker." And even St. Petersburg and Paris journals commented on the "back-door policy" of Germany and are reported as saying that "an imperial blunder" is the cause of the trouble, and that while "the incident has closed without impairing Anglo-German relations, we are persuaded that the Kaiser intended a bluff to England....and if he is wise he will not do so again."

In 1902 General Nord Alexis, now president of the Haitian Republic, and

Revolution
in Haiti

General Firmin were each endeavoring to secure the presidential chair. De-

feated then, the latter has recently been making revolutionary efforts against his rival. His forces were, however, compelled to submit to the government troops, and General Firmin, with other conspirators, took refuge in the French consulate at Gonaïves. President Alexis demanded that they be delivered up to him, and proceeded to enforce his demands by the summary execution of fifteen alleged conspirators, men of position in Port-au-Prince, who were dragged from their homes and shot without trial. This procedure stirred up foreign governments to quick action and British, French, German and American cruisers were ordered to Haiti without delay. The presence of these war vessels caused President Alexis to moderate his requests and finally he consented to allow the refugees at the French legation to leave the country in safety. Insurrection and political crimes are no com-

alti that the foreign

THE VENEZUELAN SITUATION

McCordoba, in the Chicago Tribune

consulates have become harbors of refuge, which fact is not agreeable to the republic. It does not, however, quite dare to make trouble when foreign authority asserts itself in the guise of war-ships.

Despite Republican opposition, at the elections in Portugal the Monarchists obtained a decided victory.

The
Elections
in Portugal

Out of a total membership of 146 in the chamber ninety-nine of the combined royalist affiliations were elected. The Republicans in Lisbon, however, made considerable trouble. They increased their representation in the cortes to about twenty, but they raised the cry of "fraud" and serious rioting resulted. The troops were called into action and in the conflict seven persons were killed and a hundred others wounded. Guns were mounted in the principal squares of the city and soldiers patrolled the streets. It is reported that ex-Premier Franco, although an exile, had been dictating campaign methods prior to the election, and had his candidates in evidence everywhere. Their slogan was true reform, while the royalists urged their claims as representatives of law and order. The vote throughout the country was probably the heaviest in the history of Portugal.

THE MAN WHO SHOULD BE SUPPRESSED
McCutcheon, in the Chicago Tribune

The President's desire for a bill fixing the liability of employers is gratified, for **The Employers' Liability** on April 6, by a vote of three hundred to one, the **in Congress** House of Representatives passed the Sterling bill, and on April 9 the Senate, without making any change in the measure, likewise passed it. The purpose of this bill is to change the common law liability of employers of labor concerned with interstate commerce by abolishing the provision of the common law which bars the person injured from recovering damages for injuries due to the negligence of a fellow servant. It also modifies the common law by greatly reducing the claim that a workman's own negligence should prevent the payment of injuries. The amount of damage, however, is diminished according to the degree of the negligence of the injury. Each member is made responsible for his own negligence. If now this action could be complemented by some rational scheme of industrial insurance, the position of the laborer would be decidedly bettered.

The April elections in Illinois resulted in large gains for the local-option forces. **Ousting the Saloon in Illinois** The revised returns show that 1,053 townships voted to banish the saloon. This means that three-fourths of the total num-

ber of townships in the state are opposed to liquor-selling within their territory. In the eighty-four counties in which this question was decided on April 7, 1,150 saloons will go out of business. Thirty of these counties, after December 7, 1908, will be without a saloon, in addition to the seven which decided in the same way last November. In territory once barred to the saloon, the question can not be debated again for eighteen months. In the larger cities the liquor forces were mainly victorious, particularly where municipal revenues are largely dependent upon saloon licenses. This financial issue is proving a difficult one to combat. Public prohibition sentiment is gaining rapidly all over the country, but the liquor interests fully realize that they have a potent ally in the allied business interests that are affected by the decrease of saloons. These are furnishing the sinews of war with which to fight the prohibition forces. And it is a defensive warfare which they will have to wage as long as the local-option law stands.

Indications point to a rupture between the British Liberals and the **Socialist Measures Defeated in England** Socialist and Labor groups in Parliament. Neither of these elements is satisfied with what has been accomplished by the Liberal party which they helped to bring into power. The Labor group point with bitterness to unfulfilled ante-election promises, although as a matter of fact the government has secured beneficial legislation in behalf of its Labor constituency. Witness the measures providing for the acquisition of small land holdings and exempting the funds of trade unions from liability for damages incurred under their orders. The practical defeat of the Unemployed Workmen's Bill by the passage of a substitute amendment has inevitably antagonized the Socialist party against the government. The provision that local authorities must find employment for all persons out of work, and in case of failure to do so, must maintain them and their families, was too radical a proposition even to find favor with John Burns, the Labor leader in the House of Commons. He spoke earnestly against the bill, arguing that its passage would de-

exchequer, strongly opposed it on the ground that it involved ultimate state control of the machinery of production. By a vote of 241 to ninety-five an amendment was substituted for the obnoxious section of the bill. It expressed the hope that immediate consideration would be given by the government to the recommendations in the report of the Poor Law Commission relating to the unemployed.

A gift by Mr. Carnegie of an additional \$5,000,000 to his foundation is intended to provide for pensions for the professors in state institutions. The gift is altogether commendable. There is no reason why the professors in such institutions should be excluded from the working of Mr. Carnegie's beneficent plan. State legislatures are hardly likely to establish pension systems for university professors, for they would then be forced to face the problem of pensioning civil officials as well. As a next step it is to be hoped that Mr. Carnegie will increase

the fund to make it possible to pension professors in so-called denominational colleges. As it now stands, the classification is too technical. A college like Colby in Maine is no more under the control of Baptists than is Princeton under the control of Presbyterians, or Oberlin of Congregationalists. In accordance with the provisions attached to one gift to its endowment, its faculty is excluded from the pensioned group. It is idle to expect that the denominations will raise pensions for their professors. What of the ministers? The denominational college at the present time is doing a splendid and self-sacrificing work, which is as valuable as that done in institutions which have no technical denominational relations. As a rule their professors are insufficiently paid and every argument that can be adduced in favor of pensioning a man in a state university applies to pensioning a man on their faculties. Without the self-sacrificing service of the men in these little colleges countless poor boys and girls would find an education beyond their reach.

Art and the Drama

The third exhibition of the National Sculpture Society, which was opened April 4 at the Fifth Regiment Armory, Baltimore, is probably the most important exhibition of American sculpture ever seen. Practically every sculptor in the country is represented in the collection of nearly five hundred pieces in marble and bronze. The display is one of striking beauty, as the florists of Maryland have furnished palms, flowers and shrubbery in abundance, and liberal use is made of them in decorations and backgrounds. In the center of the building is Taft's impressive group, "The Blind," and directly behind this is Shady's colossal equestrian statue of "Washington at Valley Forge." Evelyn Longman, whose work is the subject of an article in this issue, is represented by five pieces. Two exhibits that have attracted much attention are the death mask of Lincoln, executed in marble by Gutzon Borglum, and a portrait bust of Liszt by Mrs. Vinnie Ream Hoxie. The exhibition has been enthusiastically received by the people of

Baltimore and its influence is sure to be far-reaching. It is the first time that the exhibition has been held outside of New York, and it will probably be followed by others in the large cities of the country.

A genuine service to American drama has been performed by Henry Miller in

the establishment of his permanent stock company called "The Associate Players," for the purpose of producing the best drama obtainable by living playwrights. Miller does not believe in the so-called art movement and the new theater when wholly divorced from practical management and popular appeal. His revival of a first-class, all-star stock company, including such players as Edith Wynne Mattheson, Charles Dalton, Tyrone Power and Walter Hampden, with ensemble acting that is a near approach to perfection, will probably solve the problem of art as quickly as an organized national theater. The initial production in this venture marked the introduction

the Congregationalists have four theological seminaries in New England. Another reason is that the seminary, though wealthy, has been somewhat isolated in its location. During the past few years there has been considerable agitation to bring the seminary to Cambridge and affiliate it with Harvard. Despite opposition, this has been accomplished and the institution will celebrate its centenary by being so affiliated. The action is in keeping with the general tendency of theological seminaries to ally themselves more or less intimately with universities. It will be interesting to see whether the move increases the attendance of students. Congregational colleges will need to graduate more students for the ministry if that is to be the case.

Within the next thirty days two new organizations of men will be launched.

Brotherhood Organizations

In Detroit, April 28-30, a convention is to be held, having for its object the organization of a National Congregational Brotherhood. The movement was endorsed by the National Council of Congregational churches which met in Cleveland last October. Leading men of the denomination: Drs. S. P. Cadman and Washington Gladden, President Angell, Professor Steiner, ex-Mayor Jones, of Minneapolis, Judge O. N. Carter, William Allen White, General O. O. Howard and others are among the speakers at Detroit. At the Northern Baptist Convention in May it is expected that the organization of a National Baptist Brotherhood will be effected. Plans looking to this end have been under way for some time. The Methodist Church has recently consolidated in one general organization the Brotherhood of St. Paul, which has an estimated membership of forty thousand men, and the Wesley Brotherhood. In 1906 "The Presbyterian Brotherhood of America" was organized, 1,200 delegates attending its first convention and 1,432 its second. The Men's League of the United Presbyterian Church was also established in 1906. The Brotherhood of St. Andrew, among Episcopalians, antedates all these organizations. A common purpose to promote Christian fellowship, develop spiritual life and stimulate Chris-

tian and social service, is the objective aim of each one. The movement is the outcome of a growing realization of the undeveloped lay strength in the churches, and the increasing efficiency of laymen in the management of religious undertakings formerly controlled entirely by the clergy. In Nebraska the Fourth Annual Convention of Congregational Laymen has just been held, at which "some twenty-five ministers were present by invitation, and — by invitation kept silent!" It will be interesting to see what inducements to enter the ministry spring from this relegation of clergymen to a secondary position.

The present summer will be of some critical importance to the newly organ-

The Young Women's Christian Association. **Christian Association.** Until within a few months there have been two groups of such associations in the United States, the one under the direction of the American Committee, which held to the "evangelical basis" of membership, and the other which had no such test. In 1906, after long series of negotiations, these two groups of Christian workers reached an arrangement according to which the two groups or bodies should be united, provided the constituent associations so desired. As a result there was incorporated a national board of the Young Women's Christian Association of America, of which Miss Grace H. Dodge has been president. In this union it was provided that such existing associations as had not favored the evangelical basis should not be compelled to accept it if they decided to become charter members by November, 1908. Headquarters of the new board have been established at New York city and its work has been aggressively pushed. Every effort has been made to induce members of the two original organizations to become charter members of the new organization.

The most important of the associations not holding to the evangelical test is the

The Situation in Chicago

Young Women's Christian Association of Chicago. Several years ago there was a most unfortunate litigation carried on between this body and repre-

sentatives of the other groups of associations, and although the matter has finally been settled, it has probably left prejudices. At the present time there is danger lest this great association shall fail to accept the terms of the proposed affiliation and thus seriously complicate the situation. As under the terms of the agreement it is not obliged to accept the evangelical test as a basis of membership, and its independent existence would maintain the unfortunate conflict of names, it is greatly to be hoped that it will decide to enter heartily into coöperation with the institutions elsewhere. For it to decline so to do might imperil the effectiveness of the new organization, and at any rate, it is already preventing large gifts on the part of those who hesitate to assist either institution as long as they are not coöperating. To an outsider it looks as if the part of wisdom lies in the burying of old-time issues and the hearty union of all the Young Women's Christian Associations now existing under the new national board whose efficiency has already been so thoroughly demonstrated.

The city of Philadelphia is now the scene of a religious movement probably unequalled in many respects in any large city of this country in recent years, if ever. Forty-five evangelistic meetings held on a week day in various sections of the city, and adapted to all classes of people, indicate notable system and generalship in the campaign. One of the most unique of these meetings was that held in a theater at the close of a dramatic performance by the request of the manager of the company playing there. The audience as well as the stage company remained to hear Dr. Chapman and Mr. Alexander. The service concluded shortly before midnight, several of the players expressing their gratitude for the good received. The leaders in this work are not only Dr. Chapman's entire staff, numbering a dozen or more, but Dr. Dawson and Rev. C. W. Gordon (Ralph Connor) with the singer, Charles Alexander, and his wife — a combination certainly unusual. Significant emphasis is

being placed by these men on the need of personal religion for the reconstruction of society. Service for fellow men and women as well as for God is insisted on as the rightful fruit of conversion. The daily press is giving large space to reports of the evangelistic services and thus aiding effectively. In Decatur, Illinois, Mr. William Sunday has been conducting one of his spectacular but nevertheless convincing campaigns. It is reported that on the last Sunday in March there was not room enough in any of the churches for the people who desired to attend service. Large additions to the membership were received on that day. Audiences of seven thousand men in the tabernacle were addressed by Mr. Sunday on three Sunday afternoons on the question of local option. The result was seen on April 7 when Decatur voted by a majority of 1,041 to get rid of the saloons. The total vote was the biggest ever polled in the city. Sixty-three saloons, one brewery and four wholesale liquor houses were put out of existence.

The Methodist Church has been decidedly disturbed of late by the heresy-hunting pastor of the little town of Brandon, Vermont. This gentleman believes it his duty to regulate his brethren of the various conferences. He has brought charges against Professor Borden P. Bowne, the distinguished professor of philosophy of Boston University, on the charge of heresy, and also against Dr. James M. Buckley, one of the most prominent living Methodists. Not content with his defeat in both these cases, he has brought a charge against Chancellor Day, of Syracuse University, because of his criticism of President Roosevelt. The charges were promptly ruled out of court by presiding Bishop Moore; but the clergyman from Brandon maintains that he will press the case. The Methodist officials have shown no small ability in handling these matters, and it is to be hoped that heresy-hunting and general fussiness will become increasingly unpopular within the ranks of their clergy.

Evangelistic Campaigns

A Perennial Heresy Hunt

and eternal prosperity of our twenty-five thousand miles of Pacific Coast.

In 1841 President Tyler gave notice to the world that the American Government was looking after Hawaii, recognizing thereby that in these islands lay the defense of the nation from invasion Pacificward. In the sixty-odd years which have followed, the United States has never for a moment failed to realize the necessity of keeping other nations from controlling the islands which practically are the key to the entire Pacific for all manner of transportation, except as it creeps up and down the coast of China. And yet, in all these years, not an adequate fortification of any kind has been placed there, nor has a single effective step been taken to make available the one perfect, landlocked harbor within thousands of miles in any direction — Pearl Harbor, a few miles down the coast from Honolulu.

We have suffered spasmodic twinges of foreboding over what we ought to have done long ago. We have taken down the key and fondled it, then hung it up again.

In 1854, under all kinds of threats from

other nations, King Kamehameha sought to protect himself from obliteration by appealing to the United States to annex the Hawaiian Islands; but that effort failed. At the close of the Civil War Secretary Seward took the matter up and gave it a vigorous push. He sent a secret agent to the islands to investigate thoroughly and arrange a purchase price. For a time American statesmen who were behind the movement felt that the transaction was assured. Seward had a dream of the development of the Pacific which, if at that time he could have followed to fulfillment, with a free hand, would long since have resulted in a gigantic commercial supremacy and military dominance of the Pacific for the benefit of America. But that was many years ago! Seward found himself so mercilessly criticized and condemned for the purchase of Alaska that his courage failed him. He let the effort die in swaddling clothes.

To-day Japan is well in the lead, commercially at least, and capable of holding her own. Every other maritime nation on earth is participating — every nation but America. America owns the Philip-

THE JUDICIARY BUILDING, HONOLULU

The second floor is occupied by the Territorial Supreme Court and the First Circuit Court; the left half of the first floor by the United States District Court.

ways, bordered with beautiful suburban residences, stretch away into the foothills. Electric cars find their way for miles in various directions beyond the city. But everything except the business streets is still submerged in the superb glory of the tropics—flowers and foliage such as can not be found anywhere else on earth. Nature has a right of way in Hawaii which she will not easily surrender. Beautiful homes and beautiful lives she renders possible, for the poorest as well as the rich. For if there is a spot of earth where one may smile at adversity and feel that money is not everything, that spot is Hawaii.

In nothing has Hawaii made greater strides toward the best Americanism than in her educational department. The Honolulu High School and the Oahu College and the Kamehameha School are triumphs, internally and externally, of which any city in America would be proud. It is no accident, but the result of earnest patriotism and persistent energy on the part of those men whose names will forever be linked with Hawaii, that the islands have arrived at the high standard of Americanism which they hold to-day. The three daily papers in English are another convincing evidence. Read them and you realize that they emanate from a genuine American ideal, ethically, socially and politically.

It is a popular belief that the native Hawaiian is dying out. Theoretically it is true, but practically he is making good. Actually he can not die. The exact racial division of the population of the islands is not at this moment obtainable to date, but according to recent statistics there are about ten thousand Anglo-Saxons, two thousand five hundred Teutons, thirty thousand pure Hawaiians, ten thousand part Hawaiians, twenty-five thousand Portuguese and eighty-five thousand Chinese and Japanese. But through all of this—even to some extent into the Chinese and slightly into the Japanese—the influence of the fading Hawaiian permeates. The Hawaiian is not dead and will not die. Racially he will become obsolete. So have almost all races of men. It would exhaust the resources of ethnological mathematics to calculate the correct racial proportions of the American; and Hawaiians have at last drifted into the uni-

versal stream of racial absorption. That is all. But Hawaiian blood improves in miscegenation. Countless proofs of this are easily recalled by anyone who has lived long in the islands. And when the race shall live only in history there will still remain its indelible characteristics in gentleness of disposition, courteous dignity and open-handed friendliness sorely needed by the sterner stuff produced in colder climates. In losing his racial identity the Hawaiian greatly enriches the cosmopolitan man now in the evolutionary alembic.

The Hawaiian is a born book-lover. Illiteracy is practically unknown in the islands. He has not, thank Heaven, been Occidentalized. Some are tempted to speak lightly of the prevalent Christianity of the native and call him only a white-washed pagan. There is more or less ground for it. But whitewashed paganism is not the worst thing in the world. The exuberance, gentleness, generosity and eternal beauty of Nature in Hawaii, render it difficult for even foreigners to remain long thoroughly Occidental. The free wind, free water and free sunshine work wonders of moderation and beauty upon all nature, mental and physical. A man can not live long in beautiful Hawaii without partaking of its lavish generosity. There are many merry incidents in his nature-day when the regulation garb of Broadway would be as impossible as a cat-boat for his surf-shooting. The swimming pools are his. Who would exchange them for a promiscuous bath hut on the beach? Nature's pantry tempts him, where even a whitewashed pagan has but to open his mouth and be sure that it will be filled. How many times I've envied him his uniform, his pleasures and his perquisites. It was easier for the women to Occidentalize themselves somewhat and by compromise devices keep themselves still cool and pretty. The past-time belle, still easily in the memory of many, has practically disappeared, with her wonderful hair, her masses of flowers and her face always longing to laugh. But her transformation sits astride a horse, all in bright colors, still, and happy still in spite of restraining influences. They are all happy. Even the dear old mother—great, great grandmother—who has seen the transformations of a hundred years

which have changed the Hawaiian Islands from barbarism to be the Pacific headlight of Americanism—even the dear old mother, with her snow-white hair and a face that is much readier to smile than frown, sees the new world and is happy. Beautiful Hawaii! If we can not serve

her and save her for any other argument, let us do it and do it quickly, because she has a harbor—Pearl Harbor—which is the key to the safety of our twenty-five thousand miles of coast and the connecting link in the chain that binds us to our white elephant on the China coast.

ANARCHISTS AND IMMIGRANTS IN AMERICA

BY

ELIAS TOBENKIN

The American people have every right to be suspicious of those foreigners who would make America a second Switzerland for refugees who plot murder in the name of liberty. We don't want them and we won't have them. But is revolutionary anarchy really developing among us? We asked Mr. Tobenkin to investigate. Here is his report. And it is one that has been corroborated by men and women who are in a position to get a reasonable view of the facts.

We would particularly emphasize the last paragraphs of Mr. Tobenkin's study. The attacks made recently upon social settlements have been a disheartening commentary upon the information and judgment of the men who write the editorials in prominent newspapers.



At no time since the Haymarket riot has anarchism been so decidedly on the decline in America as it is to-day. Yet, at no time, since May 4, 1886, has it been so much in the public eye.

The assassination of Father Heinrichs, the Shippy tragedy in Chicago and the bomb thrown in Union Square, New York, although neither of the two latter events has yet been indubitably shown to have any connection with anarchism, have nevertheless revived the ghost of anarchy in America. As the alleged participants in both affairs were foreigners, and as most of the anarchist papers in this country are in foreign languages, anarchism and immigration have been linked together in the minds of the American people in a way which does decided injustice to tens of thousands of our foreign-born citizens.

Misunderstanding of certain conditions alone is the hysteria

which the three deplorable occurrences called forth on the part of the American people. Since the Haymarket days the immigrant population of the United States has changed. The millions of immigrants which have been pouring into the United States annually for the last decade or so are radically different from the immigrants which came to this country thirty years ago. They are neither "red" nor "black"—"internationals." They are men who were driven to this country by economic stagnation in their native lands. Most of them came here in search of bread. Some came in search of freedom. None came in search of utopias.

What is still left of anarchism in America is divided into two currents: individualist-anarchism and anarchist-communism. Neither of these two currents of anarchist thought and propaganda in America is of sufficient strength and proportions to be designated as a movement philosophical or revolutionary.

The individualist anarchists are dis-

tinctly a New England product and are sometimes called "Boston" anarchists. They are all men of learning. Some of them stand high socially and most of them own property. With them anarchism is a sort of an intellectual luxury. Benjamin R. Tucker is the leader of this class of intellectual anarchists. Most of them, too, delight in including Emerson and Thoreau among their precursors. This class of anarchists do not associate with working people. They are absolutely harmless.

The anarchist-communists, on the other hand, are revolutionary anarchists. They are men and women from among the people and are direct descendants, so to speak, of the anarchists of the period between 1883 and 1886 when the anarchist movement — then it was a movement — in America was at its height. These revolutionary anarchists of to-day, have not, however, the thunder which the anarchists of the early eighties had. There are few union-labor men among them.

In the eighties of the last century the anarchist movement went into thousands in Chicago alone. To-day it scarcely goes into the hundreds. In the eighties anarchists were armed and practiced shooting. To-day they are nonresistants and enthusiastic vegetarians. In the eighties anarchism seemed to hold out an answer to the workingmen's economic and political aspirations and demands. To-day the labor union takes care of the economic side of the laborer's life. It looks after his interest. As for the political aspirations of the radical laborer, he finds an outlet for them in the Socialist party or in kindred radical or labor parties.

The revolutionary anarchists in America to-day have dwindled down from a movement to a following. What we have of militant anarchism to-day is half a dozen men and women, chief among whom are Emma Goldman, Alexander Berkman, and Voltairine de Cleyre, who are trying to gain a following. Because of the prodigious energy and deadly persistence with which they push their agitation they are able to recruit a small but an intensely earnest — one might almost say, fanatical — gathering of devotees. The majority of these devotees are drawn from the foreign population and are scattered in small groups in every industrial

center in the United States. Recently these groups, which number from three to half a dozen men in smaller cities, and from ten to about fifty or even a hundred in some of the largest cities, have been united in an Anarchist Federation, having only one officer — a treasurer — in New York.

The platform of the anarchists is the same to-day as it was thirty years ago, even if their general character has changed. They aim at nothing less than the complete overthrow of existing institutions and the establishment of a new society based on "equality and labor and the government of each by his own conscience." They are not opposed to a certain form of government, but to all government. Democracy has no more charm for them than despotism. They resent the rule of the majority as much as they resent the rule of an autocrat or emperor. The basis for their political platform, so to speak, the revolutionary anarchists find in the writings of Prince Kropotkin.

That this ultra-radicalism of the anarchist philosophy carries with it the seed of its own destruction as a political reform is needless to say. That anarchism as a cure for social evils is absolutely untenable at the present stage of civilization, even the most radical reformers admit. The average American has no patience with its teachings. The immigrant to whom "America is another word for opportunity" refuses to be "bothered" with it. If left to itself anarchism would long have been dead in this country.

But anarchism is not left alone. Instead of letting it die a natural death, anarchism in America is constantly given stimulants by the very forces which seek to crush anarchy. The half-dozen leaders of anarchy in America could never have held together whatever following they have, had not the police of our large cities, and the reporter who takes his information regarding anarchists from the police, unwittingly aided them in their work of propaganda. Because these half-dozen leaders are always "a good story" they are given ample space in the newspapers. In other words they are given the best of advertisements free of charge. Then, too, as most of the "conjectures" of the police regarding every possible movement of these anarchists are absurd, these leaders

raise the just cry that they have been misrepresented. They not only pose but often actually become victims of police ignorance or stupidity. The result is that those of their would-be followers, whom advertisement alone could not induce to join the ranks of anarchists, and many who might never join them at all, join them out of a sort of regard for the "martyr" and as a "protest against the police outrage."

"Anarchy thrives on persecution," a leading anarchist recently declared. And the anarchist leaders, if they are not looking for persecution, know enough to turn this police persecution, when it comes, into capital to aid their propaganda.

The police of our large cities, and through them the newspapers, take it for granted that anarchists preach violence; that the bomb and the dagger are the means through which anarchists hope to inaugurate their own ideal society. That anarchists have at some time or another preached violence in America is undoubtedly true. That anarchists in certain European countries still adhere to violent methods is probably also true.

But just as the nature of the American anarchist has changed in the last twenty years, so have also his methods. In justice to anarchists in America, it must be said that violence and terrorism have no place in their propaganda in America. Neither in their literature nor in their speeches do they make the open or veiled suggestions of violence which are generally imputed to them. The anarchists in America confine themselves largely to what they call educational work. They expose the wrongs of society, after their own fashion, comment upon them, and urge as a remedy for the existing evils not individual acts of violence, but "collective protest" and "universal rebellion." What these expressions mean let an anarchist who has been much in evidence of late explain:

"We do not believe that society can be reformed by legislation. But we do not advocate violence. We believe in educating the people up to a point where they will see that legislation is a failure and that anarchism is the only remedy for all social ills. Then when the people will be educated up to that point they will unite in universal rebellion and bring on, what

we call, the social revolution. But will not this revolution bring bloodshed with it? Not any more than any other revolution which is advocated by all social reformers. Anarchists believe that it is just as possible to change from the present form of government into a state of no government as it is to change this government into another form of government. We advocate universal rebellion, but we do not advocate a single terrorist act."

These theories are expounded by anarchists in half a dozen newspapers in this country. They are advocated in *Liberty* and *Mother Earth*, in English, in *Freiheit*, in German, in *Freie Arbeiter Stimme*, in Yiddish, and in the *Cronaca Sovversiva* in Italian. *La Questione Sociale*, the Italian newspaper, published in Paterson, New Jersey, which was recently suppressed by the government, is the only exception in the anarchist press. The violence of this paper, however, does not seem to emanate so much from anarchism as from the disposition of the men in charge of it, and from certain conditions and the atmosphere which are peculiar to the place and people where the paper was published.

The editor of the *Freie Arbeiter Stimme* in New York, the paper which has the largest circulation of all anarchist organs in the country, and is read largely by Russian immigrants and Russian revolutionists, has the following to say regarding his attitude and the attitude of his paper toward violence:

"I am preaching anarchy," the editor writes. "For the last twenty years and ever since I have fully understood the teachings of anarchism I have been opposed to violence. I oppose violence not only because violence is hurtful to the continuance of our propaganda, but because preaching violence is in direct contradiction with our doctrine — that of the highest human harmony. We are opposed to government for the very reason that we believe the foundation of government has been organized violence."

The influence which anarchism exerts in the foreign districts of our large cities is absolutely insignificant. Anarchist meetings, in spite of all advertising, are among the most poorly attended. One of the best-known anarchist clubs in a foreign district of Chicago has only about a

dozen regular members who style themselves anarchists and are willing to stand by that name. Their meetings are ordinarily attended by between fifty and one hundred men and women. But these do not attend the anarchist meetings because of their interest in anarchy, but because they have no other place to go. Careful observation will also reveal that the very same people make up the audience week after week. They go to debates, they go to lectures, and they go to socials. The crowd at the anarchist meetings seldom contains new faces, which shows that not only do they not gain in membership, but also that they do not even gain sympathizers.

There are of course in all the foreign colonies of Chicago clubs and societies for the discussion of political and social questions. There are educational and revolutionary clubs. Immigration to-day is bringing to our shores thousands of men and women who are educated more or less and who thirst for further knowledge. Immigrants from Russia are intensely interested in social science, in the history of democratic movements. Immigrants from Italy are interested in the fight between the clericals and the anti-clericals in Rome. It is natural that these old-world interests should find a hearty and sympathetic echo among these immigrants in this country. It is natural that

they should seek to have clubs and organizations for the discussion of these questions. To brand such clubs as anarchist organizations, to try to impute to them any taint of violence, when they are entirely guiltless of such motives, is the surest way to create violence.

That which most threatens the immigrants in the slums of the large cities to-day is not anarchy, but want of intellectual diversion and spiritual food. Thousands of educated young men and women come over to this country to find that they are cut off from all intellectual life. Whatever has been done by social settlements to assist the immigrant in his upward struggle deserves inestimable praise. But, even with the best of desires, settlements are unable to take care of the ever-increasing hordes of immigrants who come here hungering for light and knowledge.

If instead of going into hysterics over anarchy and chasing nightmares with immigration restrictions, which will not restrict, and deportation of anarchists, which will not deport, at least not the real anarchist, for he is too skilful to fall into the hands of the police, Americans would turn their attention to uplifting the immigrant districts, to giving the immigrant in America a "square deal," the anarchy problem, whether real or imaginary, would soon disappear.

THE WONDERS OF UNDERGROUND NEW YORK

BY

EDWARD WILDMAN



NEW YORK is becoming the most accessible city in the world. Years ago men dreamed of caring for the congested traffic of the metropolis by means of underground transportation

but always the terror of a smoke-laden hole dampened the ardor of the most optimistic capitalist. The recollection of those black tubes through which our smoke-belching engines dragged the begrimed traveler made tunnel builders halt at the project of subway construction. Since railroading began, a tunnel was synonymous with a death hole and the terrible disasters of the Hoosic and the Park Avenue tunnels stood as fearsome warnings to the public. But to-day electricity has supplanted steam in tunnel transportation and the once-dreaded tube has been converted into a place of comfort and safety. The instant popularity of the subway systems, electrically driven, has averted a threatening congestion of traffic in New York and other great cities and is the beginning of a new era in terminal possibilities.

In a few years New York underground will be a nest of tunnels where the hundreds of thousands of commuters and travelers will be shot to their offices and homes as comfortably and expeditiously as if they were crossing an open plain.

The beginning of this marvelously perfect system of subterranean travel that connects for the first time in its history the heart of New York with all the transcontinental lines is the "McAdoo tunnel" which connects the new Pennsylvania Railroad station in New York with Hoboken and Jersey City, and intermediate stations along the principal thoroughfares and at junctures upon the present subway sys-

tem. The traveler from Chicago or St. Louis may, with one or two platform changes, be landed at almost any part of Manhattan Island, Brooklyn, or Staten Island, or he may pass through New York en route to Boston without even catching a glimpse of the metropolis, if he wishes.

For years the outside world has been reading from filtrated sources, wonderful tales of the building of these subways and tunnels. Travelers have visited New York and returned home without being able to report any of the magical transformations that have been hinted at in the press. But now they are a reality. The work of the sand hogs that has been going on unremittingly, foot by foot, only interrupted by weary waits in overcoming almost insurmountable obstacles and dangers, has produced results.

President Roosevelt touched the button at Washington and the McAdoo tubes were opened to the traveling public. The McAdoo system, or Hudson Terminals, consists of twin tubes under the Hudson connecting Hoboken with Manhattan and running up Sixth Avenue to the new Pennsylvania station. The second section, known as the Cortlandt and Fulton Street tubes, is nearly completed, and extends to Jersey City, where a huge terminal has been hewn out of the solid rock right under the present immense terminal of the Pennsylvania station.

The third section of the system is a transverse tunnel that runs along the New Jersey shore, one and one-fourth miles in extent, connecting the terminal in Jersey City with the one in Hoboken, where the north tubes emerge. This section will tap all of the trunk and local transportation lines that have their terminals on the Jersey side and will serve as a collector and feeder to the new tubes. The chief point of this transverse line is at the Erie ter-

minal where the tunnel station is nearer the trainshed of the Erie than is the entrance to the Erie ferry. The traveler by this route has the choice of going to Manhattan either by the north or south tube. The voyager by the Pennsylvania takes the south tube, and the voyager by the Lackawanna takes the north tube.

The fourth section of the system is a branch line running from Jersey City to Newark, extending underground through the congested portion of the city, and coming to the surface and continuing over the tracks of the Pennsylvania. Besides these initial sections, there is the spur being constructed in Manhattan and running east from Sixth Avenue, under Ninth Street. It will connect with the Interborough Subway near Astor Place. Then at Dey Street a footway extends to the station of the same subway on Broadway.

At present cars will run only from Christopher, Greenwich Street, to Nineteenth Street, but the tube will be continued from there to Thirty-third, to connect with the great Pennsylvania Terminal and the tunnels that run into Long Island. At Hoboken, direct connection is made by the Lackawanna Railroad, and passengers, coming in from the West, may step into the tube cars without going out of the station, and the same convenience will be provided when the other sections are operating.

**Personal Comfort and Saving of Time
Insured to Passengers**

The distress of the passenger as an unconsidered item in the swarms that seek New York every morning, in the mad rush for the ferries, will be a thing of the past. Day in and day out, a continuous succession of through and suburban trains discharge their impatient thousands at the scattered terminals on the Jersey shore. The Pennsylvania, Erie and Lackawanna bring crowds in their through trains from all parts of the great continent. The suburban service of the same railroads fretfully battles with the problem of bringing and returning the thousands from the populous suburban and outlying districts. Besides, there are five hundred miles of trolley lines which connect with Jersey City at Hoboken, the passengers on which can now avail themselves of this new rapid means of getting to New York. There are

further, thousands, within walking distance of the tubes, on the Jersey side, who will find them an inestimable blessing.

The new route will guarantee both personal comfort and the saving of precious time. The tube passenger can reach almost any point in the heart of the city without coming in contact with the street traffic or the dirt and mud of the crossings near the ferry points. The delay of the ferryboat, amid ice floe, fogs, mists, rain, storms and even occasional collisions, will be traditions of the past.

Trains run from shore to shore in five minutes. It takes that time to reach the ferry from the cars, at present, and thirty minutes to cross the river. The passenger has to fight his way through a crowd, each one of whom is as impatient and irritable as himself.

A great change will be wrought, by the operating of these tubes, upon the vast territory which makes up Greater New York, especially in New Jersey, which will most quickly feel the revitalizing effect. In the section lying north of a line drawn from Trenton to Asbury Park, the opening of the new system will mean the establishment of new homes, new conditions of life, new comforts, more hours at home. The standard of life will be raised. These places will be as near the heart of Manhattan as points in the Bronx and Brooklyn. Business men may even go home to lunch and return for the afternoon, and certainly will get home in better time for dinner. The resident of Newark, Paterson or Montclair will be able to enjoy an evening at the play in New York, and to remain for the usual after-theater refreshments, even on a blustering night without fear of ruffling a garment. It will enable thousands to live farther away in the country and get to their places of business or work quicker than before. Within a radius of fifteen miles from City Hall there are nearly two million people who will be directly benefited.

At present eight-car trains, electrically propelled, are running continuously between Hoboken and Nineteenth Street, New York. The cars are constructed entirely of steel, absolutely fireproof; and are built upon an entirely different plan from any others in use at present in metropolitan traffic. They have wide, sliding doors in the middle, as well as at either

and. The platforms are so arranged at the terminal stations that passengers enter and leave the cars simultaneously — those getting going out on one side and those getting coming in on the opposite side. This will do away with the dangerous crowding that makes travel during the

rush hours, as well as permanent and beauty. They are built also far to-morrow, so that they may accommodate the increasing traffic of the future. The stairways are wide and easy, to prevent jostling and crowding. Every part of the stations is constructed of concrete or metal, so that there is no possibility of fire. Their architecture is one of the surprises and revelations that await the traveler. There is a striking evidence of the general fitness of things below. On all sides are varied arches with the subtleties of light and shadow produced by the glow of incandescent globes. One is reminded of the sunken and solemn effects of the cloister, and at first there is a thrill in the peculiar unexpected harmony. As one stands on the platform and looks into the tube, disappearing in the distance under the river, it seems to dwindle to the point of a polished needle. Up above in the grained arches there is the one peculiar mellow glow, suggestive of twilight. No matter what is the condition above, here there is always a uniform soothing, restful and pleasant atmosphere.

Along the tubes inside, which are always lighted, there is a ledge level with the floor of the cars, and should any occasion ever arise to require the passenger to leave the car, he may do so without panic.

The ventilation is perfect. In the tubes under the river the air is cool and pure. As each train moves, it acts as a piston, forcing the air ahead and drawing it in behind. In all seasons the temperature remains equable. In the underground sections, the tracks run through separate tubes like those under the river, or are separated by center walls so that the piston action is not interrupted. Under Sixth Avenue — unlike the subway — a wall is built between each track, for the same purpose.

The tunnels are lined or built of steel rings, bolted together and set in place as the boring shield advances. These steel rings are in most places covered with a coating of concrete, so that the interior of the tube is smooth.

The depth of the tunnels below the surface of the river varies from sixty to ninety feet, which is the depth at the deepest place measured from the level of the water to the top of the rails. The depth of the earth and rock between the roof of

A VIEW OF THE RIVER TUNNEL STATION

rush hours on the elevated and subway such a nightly brutal experience. The stations are built on a straight line, so that there is no gaping, dangerous space between car and platform, as happens when the station is built upon a curve.

The car doors are operated by compressed air. No signal bells are used: when the last door in the train is securely closed the motorman receives an electric flash signal and starts the train. On account of the perfect automatic adjustment, no starting signal can be given so long as any door in the train remains open the fraction of even an inch. The cars are brilliantly illuminated and exceedingly comfortable. The seats are arranged lengthwise of the cars with steel rods set vertically at intervals, for the purpose of steadying the passengers when the trains are crowded.

The stations are designed for comfort

The building will accommodate ten thousand office tenants. It is the only office building ever constructed where floor space is reckoned by the square acre instead of by the square foot. It is the largest office structure in existence, containing eighteen million five hundred thousand cubic feet and more than twenty-five acres of floor space.

On the top floor of the Cortlandt building the Railroad Club will have its home, including a lunch hall and roof garden, and on the Fulton roof the Machinery

Club will have a duplicate. At the third story a massive bridge is thrown across Dey Street so that easy communication can be maintained between the two buildings. Taken all in all, in conception and execution, the wonderful system of subterranean New York, with its colossal-like terminals and its marvelous electric systems, its completeness and utility, stands unrivaled in the world as the solution of the transportation problem of the greatest human center of the world's activities — New York.

THE REVIVAL OF THE WATERWAY

BY

C. H. FORBES-LINDSAY

On May 12-15 President Roosevelt is to hold a conference of governors to consider the conservation of the natural resources of the nation. At that conference there will also be present members of the Inland Waterways Commission, ex-President Grover Cleveland, William Jennings Bryan, Andrew Carnegie, James J. Hill, and John Mitchell. Each governor has been asked to select three citizens to accompany him to the conference as assistants or advisers, and it is expected that the representatives in Congress will also be present.

In anticipation of this very important and doubtless epoch-making conference the article of Mr. Forbes-Lindsay will be seen to be particularly timely.

are the most richly endowed and the most prodigal of nations. The audacious and unbounded optimism which nerves us to undertake stupendous tasks and enables us to overcome enormous difficulties, also tends to make us improvident and short-sighted. Kipling might have said of us, no less pointedly than of his own people, "Ye go forth at morning and the noon beholds you broke." Our morning has been splendid with wealth and achievement, but the noon threatens to find us "broke" unless we make substantial amendment of our ways.

Natural resources, superior to those of any other country on earth, we have, during half a century, exploited with the fatuous recklessness of the spendthrift.

Our government has given to corporations and private individuals, practically without compensation, public property worth billions of dollars. The beneficiaries of our careless generosity have expended the easily acquired wealth in the most extravagant manner, while making it the basis of monopolies that have taxed the consumer excessively. Timber lands have been denuded without provision for reforestation or regard for the destruction of watersheds. Mineral beds have been operated by wasteful methods that have exhausted them without the extraction of more than half their deposits. Water, the most valuable of all our natural resources, has been neglected, or utilized upon restricted and injudicious lines.

We have enjoyed a marvelous prosperity during the past fifty years, but it has been pursued with an egoistic effort for immediate profit that permitted of no con-

cern for after consequences and the welfare of future generations. Nor is the present awakening due to altruistic promptings. We are induced to a consideration of wiser and more far-sighted action by the instant pressure of circumstances. The fact that our forests, our coal fields, and our oil wells promise to become depleted before the close of the present century, would not of itself move us to the reformation that we are preparing to effect because of the enhanced prices attendant upon the diminution of our supplies of the raw materials of manufacture. We should leave the settlement of the transportation problem to our children were it not a matter of vital interest at the present moment.

Despite the enormous growth of the lake traffic, the commerce of our inland waterways is considerably less to-day than it was fifty years ago. Then we had about four thousand five hundred miles of canals in operation. Of that system, two thousand five hundred miles, which cost approximately \$80,000,000 to construct, have been abandoned. In the year 1855-56, the domestic exports from New Orleans, practically all water-borne, aggregated \$80,000,000 in value. In no year of

recent times has the commerce of the Lower Mississippi reached as much as \$3,000,000 in value.

With the introduction of the locomotive, the waterway began to decline, partly as a result of economical causes, but mainly as a consequence of the suppressive action of the railroads. It was not then, as it is now, understood that the canal is the most effective traffic maker for the railway; that the ideal system of transportation consists of the best-equipped railroads in connection with freely navigable waterways, and the proper division of traffic between them, each carrying that class of freight which it can handle with the greatest economy, having regard for celerity as well as cheapness of transit.

Attention has been forcibly turned to water transportation by the enormous expansion of our commerce during the last decade and the pronounced inability of our railroads to meet the demands upon them. Industrial development has far outstripped railroad construction; and while the former maintains its vigor, the latter has declined. The result is a freight blockade of stupendous proportions, especially at terminal points. Goods lie for

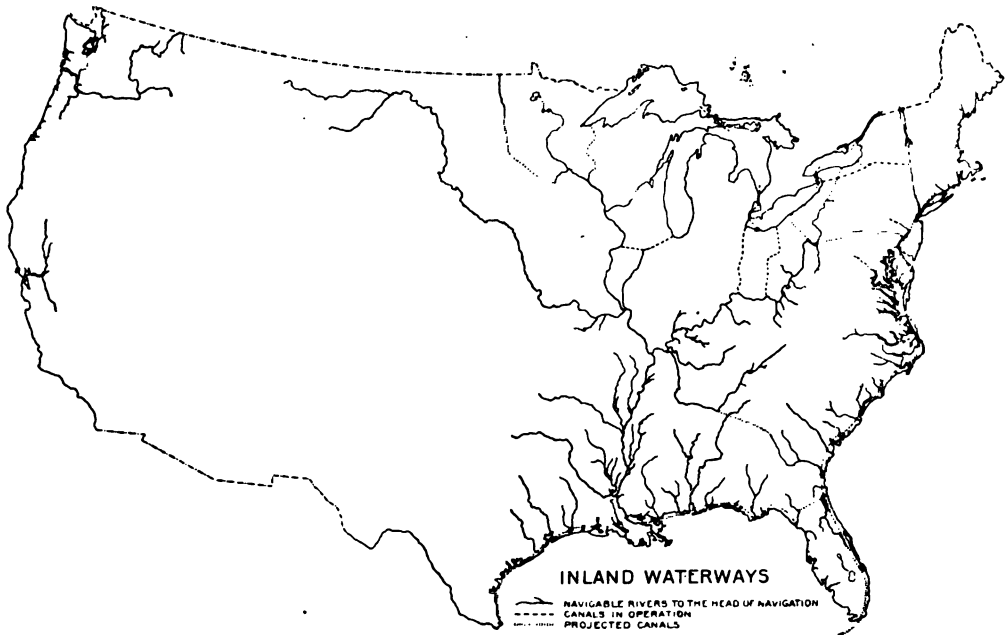
THE MONONGAHELA RIVER CROWDED WITH COAL SCOWS AT PITTSBURG

This river is of such importance that the government has already spent six million dollars on its locks, dams and general improvements

ing along the Gulf to the Rio Grande, will constitute the main portion of the projected network of navigable channels which shall ultimately afford continuous communication between all the developed sections of the country. The Mississippi and its tributaries, with existing and proposed supplements, and the oceans on either side

ourselves of the potential economies inherent in water transportation.

The proper functions of the waterway and the railroad are distinctly different, and when one is employed in the service for which the other is peculiarly adapted, economic waste is unavoidable. Goods of small unit value and large bulk can more



The rivers in this map are cut off where navigability ceases. Only such projected canals as are endorsed by expert opinion, and are likely to be included in the scheme for a national system of waterways, are here shown

of the continent, will permit water intercommunication between forty-one, or all but five, of the states and territories of mainland America.

The work of carrying this grand plan of improvement to its conclusion must engage more than one generation and will involve the expenditure of immense sums. But no matter how great the cost, the benefits must be immeasurably greater. Economy in transportation, which has been one of the chief factors of our past prosperity, is essential to our future growth. It is the very essence of the economic life of our great interior manufacturing region and is of no less importance to the agricultural territory of the Northwest. Constantly increasing competition in the world's markets has brought us to a point where it is absolutely necessary to avail

economically be shipped by water. Articles of comparatively greater price and light weight can be carried more advantageously by rail. When this logical adjustment of freight obtains, it is found that the waterway, far from robbing the railroad, creates business for it by the expansion of local industries resultant on the economies effected. Practical illustrations of this fact are in evidence in every country of the civilized world, not excepting our own.

The direct saving in the cost of carriage alone that may be anticipated from the installation of an adequate system of inland waterways is incalculable, but one specific illustration may suffice to create some idea of its enormous proportions.

The annual freight traffic in the Pittsburgh district exceeds eighty-six million

new buildings from the Pennsylvania Railroad Buildings which had previously been occupied, and the work of installation is now nearing completion.

The collections, as they stand at present, include not only the original nucleus brought from the Chicago Exposition, but numerous additions secured from the Exposition Universale of Paris in 1900, from the St. Louis Exposition in 1904 and from other sources. One of the most extensive single collections is that illustrating the ethnology, industry and commerce of the Philippine Islands, which was secured through the director, who was the chairman of the Philippine Government Board which brought this collection from the islands to St. Louis. During the two years immediately preceding the St. Louis Fair, Doctor Wilson, director of the museum, had been in charge of the preparation of the exhibit, in the Philippines and on the reservation in St. Louis, which is generally conceded to be the most remarkable work of the kind ever done.

Early in the history of the institution it began to receive from every country in the world publishing commercial and other statistical information, complete sets of these official documents. This led to the establishment of the museum's library. About these official publications there has been built up a collection of general works on commerce and allied subjects, together with a special library of city and industrial directories covering the world, constituting what is perhaps the most complete strictly commercial library in existence. The library also receives regularly most of the important industrial and trade publications issued in this country and many of those published abroad, so that its collection of current commercial literature is a remarkably full one.

Out of this collection of printed material, together with the facilities offered by the correspondence connections of the museum in all parts of the world, there was developed the Commercial Museum Bureau of Information. This department of the museum's work, which makes a business of turning to practical account the enormous fund of useful commercial information constantly coming to the institution from official sources and from the museum's correspondents in all parts of the world, has done more than any other

feature of the museum's work to establish its reputation for usefulness.

The work of the Bureau of Information is built about two distinct ideas. The first of these is the spreading abroad such information among selected and reputable concerns in a position to buy goods, as will stimulate their interest in the products of American factories and will help them to get in touch with American concerns in a position to supply satisfactorily their wants. The second is the dissemination of such information among American manufacturers who are sincerely anxious to build up their foreign trade, as will be of tangible use to them in this work. As a supplement to this second division of the institution's work, the bureau undertakes to relieve the manufacturer of the more irksome technical and mechanical details of export work.

The oldest, and one of the most important, divisions of the bureau's work is the department devoted to the answering of inquiries. The questions asked by the actual or prospective exporter naturally cover a very wide range, including not only such general questions as existing commercial conditions in different countries, customs duties and regulations, commercial travelers' licenses, methods of packing, transportation routes and regulations concerning consular invoices, but also such intimate questions as whether a specified article can satisfactorily meet competition in some definitely named place, prevailing prices, the selection of reliable local agents and other matters which, in building up trade in this country, would be made the subject of special investigation by a carefully selected member of the concern's own selling staff. About eighty-five hundred inquiries from American firms are answered every year.

Another department of the bureau's work is that which takes charge of the foreign correspondence of those who are subscribers to the various services. It is a difficult matter for any except reasonably large concerns to support a satisfactory translating staff if their foreign correspondence involves the use of more than one language besides English. By the method adopted in the bureau's translation work, when an American receives a letter from a foreign concern he may send it to the translation department and have

it rendered into English. He then writes his reply in English and forwards it to the bureau with his own blank letter-heads upon which is written the translation of his letter in the language of the foreign firm. Translations of this kind aggregate every year nearly twelve thousand letters.

✕ The publication department of the Bureau of Information issues two papers appearing at regular intervals. The *Weekly Bulletin* is a confidential publication issued every Saturday for distribution among American exporters. It contains a list of the inquiries received during the week from foreign concerns for various lines of American goods. These inquiries are given in the form of direct quotations from the letters received and to them are appended the full names of the inquirers, so that no time need be lost by the American house in getting into touch with the foreign concern. Inserting these names makes it necessary to see to it that the *Bulletin* goes only to such American houses as will make proper use of the information, and for this reason it is circulated only among the subscribers to one of the forms of service given by the bureau. The inquiries are supplemented by general information gathered from sources usually inaccessible to any one not having access to a large number of foreign publications. These items cover such subjects as changes in tariffs and patent trade-mark laws, summaries of existing commercial conditions and lists of foreign importing houses.

In addition to this the *Bulletin* contains each week a classified list of foreign trade opportunities. New enterprises are carefully kept track of, and such information concerning them as is given in foreign technical papers or received from other sources is filled out wherever possible with the name and address of the proper person to communicate with in order to make use of the information. This publication also contains each week a full list of the mail and freight steamship sailings for the current month.

A monthly paper, *Commercial America*, aims to cover the other general field of the bureau's work. This paper is distributed among foreign buyers to the number of twenty thousand. In addition to general information concerning American progress and American products, the paper

each month contains a list of American firms wishing to establish foreign agencies, and a classified list of American houses interested in foreign trade. This classified list is supplemented by an alphabetical buyer's list, which indexes some six thousand articles made for export by American manufacturers and contains inquiry blanks in foreign languages for use in writing to these concerns.

In addition to these two regular publications, the bureau issues at intervals books and pamphlets designed to be of value to American exporters. Among these may be mentioned "The World's Commerce and American Industries," a statistical publication giving a graphic illustration of the share of the United States in the world's trade; "Foreign Trade Figures," a statistical compilation showing the principal trade movements of the world; "The Commercial Guide of South America," a complete account of the commercial and industrial development of the South American countries and a full gazetteer covering the continent; "Cotton Manufactures, the World's Trade and the United States Production," a pamphlet prepared to show the position of the United States as a producer of raw cotton and of cotton manufactures; and "Trade Marks for Use in China," a pamphlet illustrated in colors, giving a few specimens of several suggested designs of trade-marks for use in China, prepared by a Chinese artist.

The Bureau of Information service is rendered to its subscribers in return for an annual fee which is designed merely to cover the cost of the bureau's operation. For unlimited use of the bureau's facilities, the fee is \$100, and for what is known as the limited service, which has found favor with a great many concerns, the fee is \$25. The Bureau of Information accounts are kept entirely separate from those of the other departments of the museum and whatever is received from the fees of the members must go back into the Bureau of Information service in one form or another, so that no member, who uses the service at all intelligently, can receive less than he pays for. There are numerous instances on record of houses which have secured enormously valuable foreign connections as a result of the small membership fee which they paid.

The Bureau of Information is the de-

partment of the museum's work which makes the institution valuable to present-day exporters. An evidence of the far-reaching policy of the institution in building for the future is the educational work being done for the school children of Philadelphia and throughout Pennsylvania. This may be said to be the work which the institution is doing for the American exporter of the next twenty-five years. For the public school children of Philadelphia, there are held in the auditorium of the institution free lectures on subjects relating to commercial geography as well as on some of the more important articles entering into foreign trade. A stereopticon is used in connection with these lectures, and after the pupils have been shown a series of slides illustrating the topic under discussion, they are taken to the section in the museum devoted to the particular work in hand. If the topic for the lecture is some special country, the class is conducted through the section de-

voted to that country; if the lecture has been on some article of commerce, the class spends its time examining one of the monographic exhibits illustrating the processes through which the product passes from its first raw state to its finished condition.

For the State of Pennsylvania the museum prepares and sends out to public schools making application for them, miniature museums to be set up in the school building to illustrate the bookwork in geography, natural science and commerce. There are four classes of these collections, designed for different grades of schools. Each of these contains about three hundred specimens of commercial material and a large collection of photographs illustrating the methods employed in preparing them. As a result of liberal appropriations by the State of Pennsylvania, over one thousand of these small museums have been distributed among the schools of the state.



A CITY OF DREAMS

THE NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN GUANAJUATO, ONE OF
THE RICHEST MINING DISTRICTS IN THE WORLD

BY

MRS. PETER M. MYERS

TER a sleep of a hundred years, Guanajuato is waking up," an American resident of Mexico City said to me one day, and I tried to think what the old place would be like "waked up." Guanajuato!—away up in the mountains, sleeping on the hillsides, the most dreamily picturesque city on all the North American continent—waking up! It was like hearing ill-tidings of a friend, for the waking-up process does not

help quaint old Mexican cities—at least not for the idler or artist, or even for the every-day tourist. On a former visit there were threatening signs of commercialism, and knowing what American capital and hustle and bustle can do for one of these drowsy places, I hurried away to Guanajuato, as one friend might fly to another in distress.

It is a full day's ride from Mexico City, and all the way we watched for some sign of the awakening, for we reasoned that if Guanajuato had waked up, some of the nearer places on the line of the railway

must have shared in the catastrophe. At Tula — where the winds on a summer day are like so many breaths from heaven — the same women and children brought the same peppery things to eat, and the same little girls hurried to the car windows with brown jugs of pulquey. Up through the beautiful valley of San Juan del Rio all was the same, the same people sold the same wares, and the same blind beggars held up dirty sombreros. At Queretaro, old, historic, quaint and beautiful — the place where Maximilian was put to death — the same women tended their garlanded jars of food and coffee, and no awakening appeared. Indeed, all through the valley there were the same dear old sights, even the same primitive way of drawing water for irrigation — a bucket let down on the end of a log swung on a post — and the men who drew the water wore no more clothes than they ever did, their costume being a pair of white linen trousers rolled high above the knees, their rich, copper-colored skins showing splendidly against the shining green of the trees above them. Much of the way was lined with exquisite gardens, out of which great splashes of color and waves of delicious fragrance floated up to the travelers.

Finally we reached Salao, where we were to change cars for the little railroad which twists its way up through the hills toward Guanajuato; but we decided that if we must witness the spectacle of the old city waked up, it should be by light of day, and for one night more we would dream of it as we knew it first. We found quarters in an old candle-lighted Mexican hotel, and from one of its balconies watched the new moon slide down out of the sky and the stars come out. The fragrance of a night-blooming honeysuckle floated up from some old patio, and over all the great plain and the blue hills was a wondrous golden light and exquisite silence. Surely, there was no awakening here.

Early the next morning we started for Marfil, the sleepy, half-Moorish little village which guards the entrance to the barranca where Guanajuato is hidden away. From Marfil into the city, some six miles farther on and about a thousand feet higher up, the way is by tiny street cars, drawn by four mules. We feared elec-

tricity might have replaced these little tram-cars and that we should go whizzing up the hill, and then we should know that the awakening had really come; for what city could sleep with those whirring, bang-banging creatures flying through its streets? But it was all delightfully as it used to be — with perhaps a little closer packing in the cars of people and luggage — and then we started up the winding climb, along the muddy stream, past old gray walls, galloping and curving from one narrow street into another, the drivers alternately blowing their tin horns and lashing the mules, whose hides had long since become callous and indifferent to all lashes.

Because it is so hidden away in the hills, few travelers into Mexico realize the proximity of Guanajuato or that it is a city of fifty thousand people and was once one of the most famous mining camps of the world. It is historic, too, and so old that its history can hardly be traced. There are many traditions in regard to its origin, but its certain reason for beginning was in the rich ores stored away in the surrounding mountains. Few tourists find their way here as it is twenty miles from the main line of railway, but the heart of the traveler must be dead indeed if it fails to be rejoiced by a few days in this queer old place. It is built in a barranca — one of many in a labyrinth of mountains — and as the city grew, it had of necessity to economize in room, even to inches, compelling narrowest streets and flat roofs.

Of course, there is much of Spain about Guanajuato, and somewhat of Italy, too, but it resembles a Syrian city more than any other, and world-wide travelers say that certain parts of it might be reproductions of Bethlehem, while others might be Jerusalem itself. The houses are of mud bricks, many of them not even plastered over, and the washing of many rains has given them a look of crumbling age which might easily carry them back to the time when the bright shining of a star guided wise men to a Bethlehem manger. There is a distinct flavor of the Orient about it all, and if camels and turbaned riders should come into the picture it would not seem overstrange. Its winding little thoroughfares can hardly be called streets, except in the business part. In some of

them it is possible to reach across and touch the opposite wall. They meander up the mountain, playing hide and seek with one another, and giving at every turn the most exquisite bits for the brush of an artist. The houses cling to the rocks and overhang the ledges, and the zigzagging little byways lead from one delight to another.

One's pen may run riot with adjectives and enthusiasm, yet give no real picture of Guanajuato, so illusive is it all; but if the idler will climb to the top of some of these high hills, where he may look down on the flat roofs rambling up the mountain to him, and across to the other side, where one terrace of these roofs rises on another—a high wall, an old arch, a quaint stairway leading to yet other roofs and walls and arches—he may get some faint idea of the city's quaintness. And if this journey is made at the close of day, in time to see the shadows gather as the sun drops behind the mountains, touching their tops with a golden mist, that scene will go with him in all after journeys.

Our hotel faced on what seemed to be an alley, but was really one of the widest streets. It promised at the corner of the block some eighteen feet in width, but narrowed down to nine, widened to about sixteen, and compassed at least three distinct juts and bulges before it finally went quavering to the hotel entrance a hundred feet away. The hotel itself has many architectural wonders, and where the rooms are stored away, and how to find them, are problems which each guest must solve for himself.

It was in the inner courts and patio of this good resting-place that we discovered the first signs of the awakening of Guanajuato. Here was a continual hum of English-speaking voices, and the beginning and ending of all conversation was of mines and mining. The very atmosphere was surcharged with gold and silver, and whether in the office, or patio, or dining-room, one heard of dividends, reports, assays, reduction processes, percentages and the like. English-speaking people hurried in and hurried out, saddled horses, clattered up to the old arched entrance with men from the mines in the mountains, and clattered away again. Every now and then the little tram-car

brought more people up from Marfil, depositing them on the little street below; the hum of English increased, and more people flitted in and flitted out in a very busy manner.

It was plainly no place for an idler, and I wandered out to mix with the easy-going natives and renew memories. On a former visit there promised a romance, from one of the old balconies facing on the zocalo, and I tiptoed over there to see whether it might not still be going on. No romance was there, nor could inquiry search out how it had fared. From one opening on the balcony a typewriter clicked continuously, and from another a phonograph sent out its hideous noises. On the further corner of the little park I encountered a whirlwind of American voices and activity, and a spirited air pervaded everything. Even the blind beggars had acquired a quicker walk and a more insistent, businesslike manner.

Across the street, on the steps of the Teatro Juarez, were a lot of natives—seemingly the ones who sat there years ago—their rainbow-hued zerapes, blue rebosos and big sombreros making a bright picture, mingling a touch of the old world with the newness of this splendidly modern building. This theater is one of the most beautiful in the world—there are those who say it is the most beautiful. Although ground room is so precious, it stands on a lot by itself, facing on the plaza, and its handsome entrance is the first object to attract the eye of the stranger. The theater, after completion, stood unused for five years, waiting for President Diaz to open it. This was accomplished a few years ago, and the President bound himself by one more tie to the people of this old camp.

The streets used to be lighted with oil lanterns, as they should be, but now electric lights glitter everywhere and have put out half the charm and shadowy mystery of the old cavernlike thoroughfares. In the lantern-lighted nights there was great fascination in poking about the winding little ways under the guidance of a gendarme or the protection of a friend *con una pistola*. The old lanterns still hang across the streets, somewhat sullenly asserting their erstwhile usefulness and defying the municipality to do without them altogether, their trustworth-

iness somewhat compensating for lack of brilliancy.

Here and there are traces of the great flood of 1905, and one realizes a little what devastation was wrought in one short hour, for that was the duration of the flood, from the time the water began to rise in the streets until it had reached a depth of fourteen feet in places and entirely subsided. In that time it carried away scores of homes, killed some five hundred people, and swept away hundreds of mules, burros and all sorts of domestic animals like so many wisps of straw. The flood was caused by a water-spout, and before people could realize what was happening, each little street and path had become a mountain torrent, pouring into the center of the city and choking up its only outlet, the street of the tram-cars to Marfil.

By the time it was over, night had come and nothing could be done, except for those who still had homes to give food and shelter to those who had none. The city went to bed, dazed, water-soaked and dreary. But before it had hardly waked the next morning to know what it had suffered, some of the mine operators had marched their men in from the mines, and the work of helping the city to find itself began. Everything recent in Guanajuato dates from this flood, and everywhere are marks showing how high the waters reached. Even in the little church by the plaza, high up on one of the pillars by the altar, is this inscription: "*Inundacion, Julio 1905.*" It was to this church we went to renew our acquaintance with friends of other days, particularly with a life-sized statue of St. Peter, and another of the cock which crew when Peter had denied his Master thrice. The two statues stand on the same pedestal, as if in life they had been the closest friends, and we were glad to find that the "*Inundacion*" had not washed away or in anywise harmed these two delightful bits of realism.

There have been other floods in Guanajuato — indeed, her history is well sprinkled with them; and one in 1760 wrought great ruin and destroyed many lives; but none have ever equaled that of 1905. A tunnel was begun sometime in the eighteenth century, for the purpose of carrying off the waters which pour down into

the city from mountain passes in heavy rains. It was abandoned, but now is being completed at a cost of a million dollars, and Guanajuato will no more be a prey to floods.

The city's water supply is furnished from two large reservoirs. One beyond the church of Valenciana, high up in the mountains, supplies the homes and fountains. The dam across this reservoir is a massive, artistic piece of masonry, forming a splendid bridge to the hills and country beyond. It was here that the fiesta of St. John's day used to be observed. On that day, June 24, everybody in Mexico is supposed to have a bath. The bathhouses are decorated, many of them have music. They are opened at four in the morning, and it is a long day of cleanliness and rejoicing — at least it is designed to be such. Guanajuato celebrated it by opening the floodgates of this dam and letting off the water from the lake. In those days the gates were of wood, and prisoners condemned to death were appointed to break them down. Of course it was a most dangerous undertaking and few escaped with their lives, but those who did were always given their liberty.

And so it came about that the place was called "*La Presa de Esperanza*," the dam of hope. It was a slender hope at best, held out to the condemned men, but life was dear, even to them, and they battled madly with the waters for life and liberty. The natives came from great distances for this fiesta, and crowds thronged the banks to witness the sport, which ranked with bull-fighting and other amusements of the sort — to all which the blood of their Aztec and Spanish ancestors had given them a leaning and a liking. Rare sport this must have been, and a gruesomely realistic way of celebrating the birthday of St. John the Baptist.

The other reservoir is at the other end of the city. "*La Presa*" they call it, and it is a graceful combination of curves, arches, little lakes, high walls, terraces, flowers, fountains and little shadowy pathways. It is a delightful spot in which to while away the hours, and with the sun shifting through the leaves and bird-songs overhead, one may watch the streams of color flowing down the forky mountain paths at six o'clock — the peons

coming from their work in the mines, each one wearing or carrying a brilliant zerape and the ever-picturesque sombrero.

Hidalgo was a native of Guanajuato, and in the beautiful park at La Presa is a splendid bronze statue of him, the George Washington of Mexico. He lived in San Felipe from 1792 to 1798, and a tablet there tells the story of this beloved patriot who was put to death in Chihuahua in 1811 and his head brought to Guanajuato and hung on the corner of the Alhondiga de Granaditas, the hideous spike remaining on the building to this day. If Hidalgo could have known how, in after years, he would be revered and honored, perhaps he would have counted it full compensation for losing his life; or perhaps he didn't care if he did lose it in struggling to help the people he had all his life loved and tried to help. If he can look back now, it must be infinite satisfaction to know how much he did accomplish for their good.

The water-carriers add much to Guanajuato's quaintness. Many of them are women and young girls, who carry the large earthen jars on their heads or shoulders in a most graceful, oriental fashion, and as they gather about some old fountain, make delightful pictures. At La Presa three of these barefooted, picturesque carriers used to come every evening to fill their jars, usually laughing as they came and went. I longed to perpetuate them with a camera, but they were always just too late for the light, and all I caught was a smile and "*buenos tardes*," though in my memory I shall always have the picture of these three brown women and their gracefully poised jars silhouetted against the evening sky as they single-filed across the old stone terrace.

The Panteon is one of the most interesting of its kind in Mexico, and is well worth a visit if only for the view of the city. It stands well up on the mountain, and no one may pass through the entrance gates except by permission of the guard. All around the interior and extending to the top of the wall, are places allotted for interment, exactly like the pigeonholes of a desk but large enough for a casket. A certain sum is charged for perpetual right to one of these spaces, and if at the end of a specified time this sum is not

paid, the casket is taken out, the contents put in a corridor below and the space rented to some one else. It happens sometimes in this casting-out process that the remains are found to be well preserved, in which case they are made to stand along with others of their kind in another corridor, gathered together in this underground place, without regard to affinities or former friendships or enmities. One old fellow looks as if he had died of laughing; others appear to appreciate the grim humor of the situation, while some of them never will cease to look their resentment.

The city's name is an old Indian one and used to be spelled "Quashiquato" and "Quanashuato," and other ways. Finally it evolved into Guanajuato, and is said to mean "Mountain of Frogs," and to derive its name from a frog-shaped stone there which the Indians worshiped. Be that as it may, the Spaniards began coming here in 1547, attracted by reports of rich mines which had hitherto been worked by the Chichimeca or Otomi Indians — branches of the Aztecs — and it was not long before this came to be the scene of some of the greatest mining activities the world had ever known. And there are those in Guanajuato now who will tell you that what that age was there, in magnificence and splendor, we of our time can form no idea, and that our modern bonanzas are mere nothings in comparison to the riches taken from these mines then. The rich and cultivated and the nobility came over from Spain, as did also the adventurers. And as the mines more and more poured out their wealth, the necessities and luxuries of the people increased, until it required the markets of the world to supply their wants. And so it came about that there were brought there the richest and finest silks from Japan, the rarest and most beautiful china which could be procured in any country; Arabian horses, and even carved ivory furniture from India — indeed every luxury which could be thither transported, eventually found its way into this camp of fabulous wealth. At that time Spain derived the greater part of her wealth from Mexico, and especially from Guanajuato, one mine there alone paying \$17,000,000 in royalties to the crown of Spain.

The work in the mines was all done by peons, who received six cents a day, when they were paid anything. It was not for them that the mines poured out their gold and silver. But these poor peons were very religious — perhaps it was more comfortable for them if they were very religious in those days, for they were then under the dominion of Spain — and when they were not earning the fabulous sum of six cents a day in the mines, they could build churches without pay and give thanks for the privilege.

The church of Valenciana was built in this way. It is near the Valenciana mine, away up on the mountain, commanding a superb view of the city. If built in the ordinary way this church would not have cost more than \$150,000, with perhaps \$250,000 more for its gold and silver candlesticks and gold-leaf ornamentation; but in that golden age they were not careful of the cost of building a church, and for this one they sent to Spain and procured the costliest and rarest wines with which to mix the mortar, thus bringing the cost up to more than a million of dollars. The Count of Valenciana would have his people worship well. The excavations for this church were carried out in purple and scarlet silk bags, made, blessed and consecrated for the purpose. It was built by the operatives of the one mine, which has produced some three hundred millions of dollars. It has been worked down twenty-two hundred feet, has fifty-eight miles of underground workings, and at present contains about one million cubic meters of water.

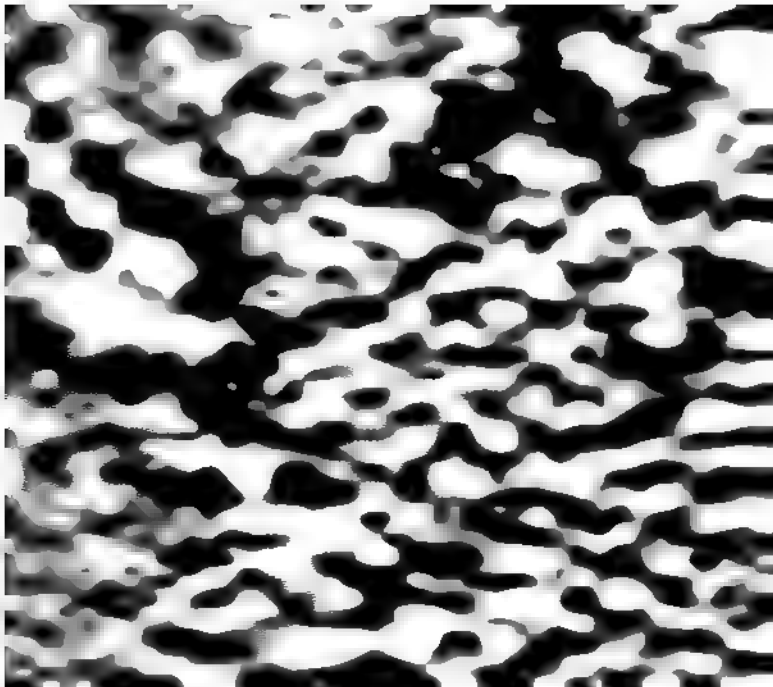
In that glorious golden dream Guanajuato lived for years, and every year the dream became more beautiful, more vivid and more real! Here was really inexhaustible wealth, limitless possibilities! With these great hills filled almost to bursting with gold and silver, what mind could compass the future of Guanajuato? The mountains were fairly alive with peons and burros, packing the ore to and fro, hurrying with all the speed possible to a Mexican and a burro; but do their best, they could not get the ore out fast enough! Men and burros would be exhausted before the bottom of the mines could be reached! It was good just to be alive in those days — at least for those

who owned the mines — to find one's treasure piling higher each day, to know that the future held only gold and untold luxuries — no want nor wish that could not be satisfied, if only the markets of the world held out! How more than golden was the dream!

But suddenly a distant rumble was heard. This mine was not producing quite so much of late; that one had come upon a poor vein; another had had some misfortunes, and yet others were filling with water. Things were not going well; and at last the precious ores seemed to give out. The mines had been worked as deep and as well as they could be with the primitive methods of those days, and there came a time when they could go no further. One by one the mines ceased to be worked at all; the rich people — those who had not spent all their wealth as fast as they got it — invested their money in the fertile lands between Leon and Queretaro; and those who could get away moved to other places; and Guanajuato went to sleep. Seemingly hers was a dreamless sleep which should know no waking. If she dreamed, it was a nightmare; if she waked, it was to poverty and dreariness. The hills, which had been so packed with riches, were now great masses of profitless, unliving rock, which would not raise corn, and without corn the people could not live! How more than wretched was the prospect!

A few years ago new mines were discovered hereabouts, and Americans and other foreigners began coming in. They brought with them not only capital, but new methods of working the mines, new and modern machinery and new ways of economizing, so that even what was considered waste material in old dumps was made valuable. Investors now and then paid enormous prices for apparently exhausted mines — and which were exhausted so far as Mexican ways of working them were concerned. The cyanide process of reducing ores was brought here, and the patio process almost done away with, so that only one of the old patios is in operation in Guanajuato. This process, though so picturesque, could well be spared, because costly in the lives of men and mules.

At last, through a persevering American, electric power was brought to Guan-



"Memories" by Sara Holm

RECENT PROGRESS IN PHOTOGRAPHY

ILLUSTRATED BY PHOTOGRAPHS FROM THE FOURTH AMERICAN SALON WHICH
IS NOW BEING HELD IN THE PRINCIPAL CITIES OF THE UNITED STATES

BY

LOUIS ALBERT LAMB

IN the fine arts as in criminal jurisprudence, intent is the crux of things. If our genial friend Elia were alive he would be very apt to remark that intent was not the only matter in common — a waggery fully justified by the references to "crime" in the literature of art. But let them pass — sufficient unto the day is the element of intent.

In the *causes célèbres* of the time there are analyses enough, and to spare, of the nature and quality of the acts which set up a presumption of intent; as for example the doing of things which, in the normal sequence of affairs, could but eventuate in the crime at bar. And it is even so

in that department of the fine arts now the sphere of the pictorial photographers.

Saving a few world-resounding fruitions — such as "Rodin, Le Penseur" by Steichen — and noting the exceptions of record, the modern cult in camera craft stands for conviction rather on the quality and direction of antecedent processes than on the actual accomplishment of masterworks of graphic art. The point to be insisted on is that the intent is well defined and the objective unmistakable.

In one of his inimitable essays Walter Bagehot quoted with approval the droll humor of some nameless wit who observed that the reason so few good books were written was that so few men who could write well knew anything worth writing about. And until the beginning of the

present century the same saying might have been applied to photography in explanation of the paucity of good work. But it can not be said now, except in jest.

The camera workers of the entire world have been wide awake to the duties and responsibilities of their new dignity ever

tography. Within a year after the "Photo-Aquatint" treatise of Mr. Demachy came from the English press it was the bible of all aspiring workers in the craft. Possessed by a few of the elect in the large cities, its formulæ and technique were whispered about in the higher,

"Early Morning Mist" by John Chislett

since the revival of gum-bichromate printing by Robert Demachy during the eighties and nineties, and more especially since its public exploitation in America by Alfred Stieglitz of New York, late in the last decade. As a matter of fact the delicious uncertainties of gum arabic pigment films should be credited with a large part of the advance which is now needed for pictorial, or "Salon," pho-

and inner, circles of the Salon cult. The very jealousy with which these little books were guarded from the philistine outsider, and the fasting and prayer necessary to borrow one, had much to do with the development of the method and its speedy ascent to the summit of favor as the supreme medium of individuality in this field of art.

Empiric to the point of the ridiculous

able mass of experience and data leading up to the achievement of color photography.

In every center of esthetic culture the world over, for the last decade, hundreds of enthusiasts of the lens and camera have been toiling with truly admirable devotion to bring nearer the realization of the painter's ideals by the means and methods of modern science. The zeal which possesses these pictorial workers in Europe, in Asia, in Africa, in Oceania and in America, is strongly reminiscent of the "mania for drawing the forms of things — the things of heaven and of Buddha, the lives of men and of women," which Hokusai ascribed to himself in his "Mang-wa." Not only have the photographers had to perfect their methods and nicely adapt their means to the end; they have had to analyze the world's heritage from the masters of the past in every department of art, seizing the essential principles and finding ways to embody them in the product of the camera.

Hundreds of exhibitions have been or-

ganized since the birth of the pictorial movement and literally thousands of prints have been submitted to juries of selection composed of painters, sculptors and photographers. The censorship which has been exercised by these juries, under the authority of Salon canons, has been extremely rigid. "Artistic intention and individuality of expression" have been ever the criteria of judgment. Technical perfection without evidence of imaginative power has been thrown out; profound characterization, such as results from intense artistic perception and feeling, has been exalted. From one end of the world to the other these exhibitions have been viewed and studied by innumerable devotees of the camera. Royalty has contributed to them on the same terms imposed upon the lowliest aspirant for honors. Private collectors and public galleries have purchased admirable examples of the new school. The art journals and the illustrated press of the world have vied one with another in reproducing these prints. Successful Salon workers

"In the California Redwoods" by C. George Bull

have been commissioned by publishers to illustrate famous poems and novels, and these strictly photographic conceptions have been accorded very high rank. Rather good for one decade?

The pictorial movement so far has been preparatory. It is not contended that any tremendous creative work has been produced by it as yet. But that need not disconcert or discourage any one. It has

been the work of the pioneers in the field to prepare for geniuses whom the exigencies of the future may make incarnate, to set their seal upon all human thought thenceforth. So far the Salon movement has established modes and methods and precedents such as may be said to establish for pictorial photography the true artistic intent.

Once or twice in a millennium, as the

"Landscape" by William H. Phillips

cosmic Professor Fiske observed, speaking of Shakespeare, a supreme genius "gets himself born into the world" and proceeds to dominate it. Sometime such a genius will enter the photographic field so ably prepared for him by the host of sincere, though modest, pictorialists of The Linked Ring, of the Photo Secession, of the Salon Club of America, of the famous photo clubs of Paris, London, Munich and Vienna. We would not assert that the marvels thus far wrought by Kühn, Henneberg, Watzek, Demachy, Steichen, White, Stieglitz, Herzog, Coburn, and the rest, are valuable and utile merely as acid phosphate for the glorious growths of the future. They are rather the perfect but minute starlets which spring and bloom and fade to form the rich humus, whence, in due season and in ways beyond human understanding, issues forth a floral sun of passing loveliness. The tiny star of blue serves well its purpose, affords pleasure to the casual

beholder, gives guerdon to the botanist, and good to all; there is nought to lament that it is not a victoria regia. Nor is there anything to lament in the thought that greater hands than ours will mix gum bichromate, and from negatives conceived on a scale we dream not of, will achieve pictorial photographs which may change forever the current of human emotion.

Nomenclature and conventions change, but the great truths are static. As Professor Cooke remarked of the alchemists: They called their causative entity "phlogiston" and the moderns fancy that they were visionaries or charlatans; but if you amend their texts by reading "energy" where they wrote "phlogiston" you will find that you have a substantially correct restatement of the theory of conservation. In like manner the conventions of Moronobu and of Harunobu and of Hiroshige have changed and are out of vogue; but if your Salon photographer were to take a

tographs of the liquid fire and sublimated rubies which pour over the Wooded Island at Jackson Park almost any evening in August.

The more one knows about the ancients the less he admires the ancients and the more he venerates and adores the magnificent thaumaturgy of Time, by which supernal magic they have been made to appear so transcendently great. And then how much more a live modern appreciates modernity when he contemplates in parallel a Greek Herakles and St. Gaudens' Lincoln, or when he compares a Hobbema landscape with a multiple gumprint by the Gebrüder Hofmeister, or when he looks at Alvin Langdon Coburn's "Notre Dame de Paris" side by side with any of the Lake Biwa series of Hiroshige.

The ideal of individual culture which has obtained respect among thinking men is that which proposes for each the highest development he is capable of attaining in as many departments of life

as his brain and spinal cord have inferent and efferent agencies to essay and sustain. Perfection of attainment is not to be expected often when the ideal is so high, but we have Rabbi Ben Ezra's solace — "The man I yearned to be — and am not — comforts me."

And herein we find the analogue of the spirit which is motive in the pictorial photographic movement of this year of grace. Not a man or woman of mature mind and earnest heart who sallies forth with a camera on the gray-blue days which Bastien-Lepage and Hiroshige and Whistler equally loved, is without absolutely the same quality of artistic intention that any of them possessed, though the voltage of the intent may be lower and the amperage smaller. The difference is only of degree, not at all of kind. It is hard to believe that anything but pure cant can assert that Steichen's photograph of William M. Chase is inferior to Fantin-

A Japanese Print by Mitsuo W. and G. Parrish

his corn studies at Urbana, Illinois. Likewise the "thus-far-and-no-farther" school of artistic thought must be vastly dismayed to see, with the eyes of the flesh, a Lumière autochrome, three-color, potato-starch plate putting Turner to the blush as a percipient and recorder of color sensation.

As we have said before, empiricism got its *coup de grace* when gentlemen deficient in reverence but armed with the higher mathematics began to apply the calculus to the sacred shrines of popular idolatry. The Slade professor spoke from a very safe vantage point when he exalted the colorists to the rank of archangels and avatars. It is another question what Mr. Ruskin would be compelled to say of Tintoretto and Titian if he were to pass a day or so in the laboratory of Père Lumière at Lyons in France, or if he might have seen our own John Powrie with his three-color rulings, making pho-

Latour's "Manet." It is a truism of mineralogy that color is the least characteristic and most variable property of crystals. The fundamental forms and goniometric constants are absolute to the limits of our means of measurement. And so in portraiture everything is secondary to the soul which informs the effigy. Monochrome is nothing, color is nothing, pose is nothing, effect is nothing, except as each and all serve to reveal that most amazing of the works of God, the vital, motive, overwhelming, majesty of the soul of man.

Monsieur Lumière's spectroscope and the Elberfeld analin-fabrik conspire to give you any color to a wavelength of light. Schott and the Jena opticians conspire with the chemists to provide the perfect means and media of unerring monochrome. They are nothing. But lo! cometh the artist, seeing in nature hints of all possible pictures as the musician sees in the keyboard hints of all possible harmonies; seeing in the human form that wherewithal he may declare the nobility of human endeavor and the divinity of human destiny; seeing in the blaze of noonday or in the mists of evening themes which may make the hearts of men pulse with a purer delight than is found in counting-rooms; seeing in the cañons of the cities and in ghetto purlieus beauties of form, balance, design and proportion such as the gods might envy if envy were of the gods — and then? Ah, then, you begin to be awake to the fact that we are in a new era, guests, as it were, at the silver-wedding anniversary of Science and Art, touching elbows with men and women old enough to remember the nuptials, young enough to survive for the golden anniversary when it rolls around; in an age of triumph for exact knowledge and of discomfiture for empiricism; in an age which has produced

"Midwinter" by Edward Brown

in abundance photographic prints so consummate in design, so veracious in natural fact, so subtle in their appeal to the emotions that if Rembrandt van Ryn or Hiroshige had seen their like we may conceive that neither would have scratched copper or graven wood thereafter, save in the way of hopeless emulation.

Modern science has given us the means; modern enthusiasm and world-wide coöperation have developed a community of method or the technic of a distinctively modern art — that of the pictorial photographers. Only one thing is lacking: We must develop great men endowed with the sovereignty of supreme ideals.

And if Professor Fiske is right in his statement, the present century ought to see born upon this planet, the master of masters in graphic art — and a Salon photographer.

seven women members of the National Sculpture Society, the only distinctive artist organization devoted to the promotion of American sculpture, four may be regarded as western artists; three of them were trained in Chicago's art school and the other at one time occupied a Chicago studio.

Possibly the woman who — at least in late years — has gained for herself most distinction as an American sculptor is Miss Evelyn Beatrice Longman, who, if she now calls her home New York, made her first serious attempts to perfect herself in the work of a sculptor in the Art Institute. It is unfortunate that the Institute students, well trained as they have proved themselves to be, do not find in Chicago that abundance of opportunity to prove their ability which at present appears to be obtainable only in eastern cities. Although in the West the patronage of the sculpture branch of art is steadily, if slowly, growing in quantity, it is not as yet sufficient to attract the

THE MODEL FOR THE COLOSSAL "VICTORY"

Which surmounted the dome of Festival Hall at the
Louisiana Purchase Exposition in St. Louis

ison, Wisconsin. Mrs. Bessie Potter Vonnahme, wife of the well-known painter, whose "figurines" of mothers and babes, of children and maidens, are most charming examples of the modeler's art, was a former student of Lorado Taft at the Chicago Art Institute. The same helpful master, in the same splendid school, inspired Mrs. Julia Bracken Wendt, as well as several others, who, if they have not yet reached a position where they may truthfully be proclaimed as great sculptors, are at least turning out good work and may win renown later on. Of the

THE WELLS MEMORIAL

Erected in Tennessee marble in the cemetery
at Lowell, Mass.

sculptors who naturally ought to find there a permanent home and a generous share of work.

Miss Longman was born near Winchester, Ohio, whither the family had removed from Evanston, Illinois. She is next to the youngest of a group of six children. Her father is of English extraction, her mother was English-Canadian. She must have imbibed some love of the beautiful from her father, who was a musician by profession and who also occasionally amused himself with painting. Who knows, too, whether the fact that the Longmans were once French — Longmain the name was — does not account for the love of art inherited from a nation of artists?

Can any good in art come out of the Nazareth of a Chicago environment? Granted all the influence of inherited bent toward art, yet the life of a family in most moderate circumstances in Chicago is not conducive to an art-loving and an art-producing future. The young girl was obliged to leave school when she was only fourteen years of age and to begin to earn her own living. She worked as a clerk for a large wholesale house for several years. It must have been that within the would-be sculptor's heart the vital spark was surely lighted or she could not have kept alive the fire which smoldered through childhood and was not extinguished by the drudgery of a down-town office. For even while her head and her hands were weary with the tasks of a long business day, she had the courage and the ambition to spend her evenings in the night school of the Art Institute. She soon found, however, the double strain too great, and the art education had to wait. But only for a time, for she began to save the littles from her modest salary until she had accumulated \$265, an amount which to the ambitious maiden must have seemed a veritable Carnegie foundation. In any event, it was enough, for that little hoard was the beginning of her career. With it she was able to study drawing and painting for a time in Olivet College, Michigan. Here, too, she made her first immature and almost undirected attempts at modeling.

It is just as disheartening to be unappreciated to-day as it was during the Renaissance. The young artist of New

York or Chicago is as uncomfortable when living on lunch-counter sandwiches as was the underfed Millet in Paris when he was waiting for Fortunatus in the disguise of customers to knock at his attic door. Yet, somehow, as we read the stories of the early struggles of the old masters, we see a glint of romance on their lives which we do not seem to discover when we hear about the apparently prosaic efforts of some as yet "mute, inglorious Milton" of our own day.

Whether or not the struggles and hardships and disappointments which accompanied Miss Longman's early efforts to perfect herself in her chosen profession, were touched with the high lights of romance, they were exceedingly real. They did not end when the \$265 fortune gradually melted away. She came to Chicago in 1899, where she began seriously and industriously to study sculpture, paying for her tuition by work in the Institute library at night. Her only "income" was derived from occasional "odd jobs," which, while they were indeed "pot-boilers," it may be assumed were conscientiously done. The more than two years at the Institute were followed by a period of teaching in the summer school and again, in the autumn, in the regular classes.

Then, in 1901, Miss Longman made the hazardous venture of removing to New York. Almost like the youthful Franklin, she came into the great city munching her rolls — only her buns were in her pocket-book and it contained just \$40. She was fortunate enough to obtain work in the studio of another Chicago artist — since become famous — Hermon A. MacNeil, and later, for a short time, assisted Isidore Konti. The little pile of money, although husbanded by strictest economy, dwindled away. Even when one's most lavish expenditure for meals is limited to a fifteen-cent course dinner, so large a sum as \$40 will disappear — and it did. Fortunately, just as in the traditional lives of artists, at this crisis came an offer of work as assistant in the studio of Daniel C. French, to-day one of America's greatest and most successful sculptors. From that hour, in the congenial atmosphere of this kind and helpful artist's studio, the sky began to brighten. There she steadily toiled for three years.

the way becoming steadily pleasanter and easier.

For the last five years Miss Longman has had a studio of her own. Two years ago she spent three months in Italy and that same year Olivet College conferred upon her the honorary degree of M.A. From that studio have come such works as are reproduced in the illustrations which accompany this article, works which have brought reputation, generous praise and recognition among the sculptor craft, possibly more prized even than the silver medal awarded to her for the figure "Victory," which in colossal size surmounted the dome of Festival Hall, of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition at St. Louis. Miss Longman has won recognition in every important competition in which her work has been entered. In the first she carried off the third prize, in the second the second award, and on two subsequent occasions the first prize.

Miss Longman's art is noticeable for its refinement and strength, characteristics infrequently found together. The figures which she creates are admirable in composition and charming in detail. One feels that beneath the delicate draperies of, for instance, the angel and the sorrowing woman of the Wells memorial — erected in Tennessee marble in the cemetery at Lowell, Massachusetts — there are bodies, modeled with the precision and sureness of one who is master of her art. What an inspiring piece of statuary is the "Victory"! It was admirably adapted by its significant virility to the spectacular position it occupied at the St. Louis Fair, and it is so graceful, too, in the smaller size that the Union League Club of Chicago secured a bronze copy of it to adorn its reception hall. The portrait busts she

has modeled are characterized by clear insight into character and decided vigor in execution.

Two years ago, in a notable competition in which many of the best sculptors of the country were represented, Miss Longman was awarded, by a jury of eminent judges of works of the kind, the commission for the great bronze doors of the memorial chapel for the Naval Academy at Annapolis, an honor which might well be coveted by any artist. The accompanying reproduction of the sketch for this monumental work makes public for the first time, it is believed, the general scheme employed. Doubtless before the doors are swinging upon their hinges in their final place of distinction, the artist will have altered some of the details shown in the sketch. But such alterations, if they shall be made, will not modify any of the significant features of this remarkable production. Here may be discovered lofty sentiment and high ideals, expressed in the language of sculpture, but language so beautiful and rhythmic that the whole must affect one as an epic in bronze. Daniel C. French has indicated, especially in his doors for the Boston Public Library, that it is not always necessary to follow the precedent of Ghiberti's bronzes in Florence. Fewer figures, in low relief, may after all be as effective as numerous "pictures in bronze." In any event, whoever sees the design which Miss Longman has produced for Annapolis can not but be impressed with its dignity, its appeal to the higher emotions, on the side of sentiment and relation to its environment; and its beauty of line and form, its admirable balance of composition, its sane adaptation of sculptural means to esthetic ends, on the side of artistic accomplishment.



WINTHROP MURRAY CRANE

POLITICAL COBONER AND FINANCIAL UNDER-
TAKER—A "MIXER" WHO DOES NOT "MIX"

Portrait on page 452

BY

GEORGE ROTHWELL BROWN

afternoon in November, 1907, at the height of the recent financial storm, a slight, unpretentious-looking man sat in the lobby of the St. Regis, in New York, reading a newspaper.

His glance was attracted to a small paragraph buried in the mass of Wall Street news, very much as he was buried in the crowd of important-looking persons who towered above him. The paragraph stated that the Arnold Print Works, of North Adams, Massachusetts, had gone into the hands of a receiver.

The modest-appearing little man donned his overcoat, wormed his way outside, hailed a cab, and was driven downtown to the office of the company, and had a conference with Mr. A. C. Houghton, its president. Then things began to hum. The two gentlemen telephoned around town, and quickly assembled the principal creditors of the concern.

"Gentlemen," said the small man, "there are twenty thousand people in North Adams, one-half of whom are dependent upon this factory for their bread and butter. If it goes to the wall half the houses in town will be for rent, grass will grow in the streets, and there will be poverty and misery. Moreover, the banks may be closed by a run. If they go under they will wreck the merchants."

The creditors were loath to grant a compromise. Finally, one of them, an important-looking citizen, whose picture has appeared in every ten-cent magazine for two years past, with an impressive cough said:

"I'll tell you what we'll do, Senator: If you will act as receiver, we will back you up."

"Oh, if the Senator will act as receiver it will be all right," chimed in the other creditors.

The Senator returned to his hotel. He walked the floor that night, turning the problem over in his mind, for he was a busy man. In the morning he had reached a decision. He had been thinking of the working people in North Adams. He agreed to act as receiver. The news was telegraphed to the panic-stricken town. Little groups of operatives discussed it on the street corners. The storekeepers discussed it behind their counters. The bankers discussed it in their private offices. Everybody said:

"Murray Crane will act as receiver of the print works. Now, everything will be all right."

The gloom which had settled over the little town was shaken off. The sun began to smile. Confidence returned. Since then, in spite of most discouraging business conditions, the Arnold Print Works has been running, and a satisfactory outcome is assured.

Who is this man Crane?

He came to the United States Senate in 1904 to fill the vacancy caused by the death of the venerable George F. Hoar, of Massachusetts. The Senate received him without much interest. Although he had been a successful governor of his state, and had declined appointment as Secretary of the Treasury, and the chairmanship of the Republican National Committee, it was thought that he could not make his influence felt in the Senate for many years.

Winthrop Murray Crane took his seat in the clubroom of aristocrats, and began to look about him. He studied the Senate as he would have investigated a business proposition. By and by he began to dis-

cover things of which older senators had never dreamed. He mastered details first, and then branched out.

Soon, when a senator approached another senator and talked confidentially of a matter, the other senator would say: "What does Crane think about it?" It was not long before an increasing number of senators were saying this, and until it is ascertained where Crane stands, it is thought inadvisable now to do anything.

His committee room is sought by statesmen—who have been in the Senate so long that half their families are on the government pay-rolls—wishing to consult a man who has not yet thoroughly warmed the seat of his mahogany chair, or scraped any varnish from his new desk. These senators, growing enthusiastic, pound their thighs, and declare that "Crane is the best mixer I ever knew." So he is, but he is a "mixer" who does not "mix."

There is nothing "hail fellow well met" about Senator Crane. He does not line the boys up at the bar and tell stories by the yard, although he can spin a good yarn, and he never dashed up to a fellow and slapped him on the back, in his life. If anybody ever slapped Senator Crane on the back probably there would be a funeral. He is not built for a "mixer."

He has an almost effeminate hand, which he slips timidly into yours when he greets you, and there is no grip about it. It is a very unresponsive hand, not at all suited to a United States Senator with a reputation as a "mixer." When he ventures from the security of the Senate Chamber to navigate a cautious course to the House or to his committee room, he always hugs the wall with a shrinking modesty which makes persons who behold him swell with pity. Probably nobody ever knew Senator Crane but to love him. Possibly he is a "mixer": but if he is, he is a new breed—he has never been catalogued.

There is one place where he is not a "mixer," and that is at the "Other end of the Avenue." It is reported that he has been there, and is familiar with the road, but the watchmen and doorkeepers and messengers do not know him.

When the Presidential situation began to grow warm it was not natural the leaders should ask "What does Crane stand?" That is the question he has

been mentioned as the campaign manager of Hughes, Knox, and others, and has been spoken of for the nomination himself. It has not been discovered just where he does stand. One day he is to take charge of the Pittsburg ambition: the next he is rushing off to Albany. One thing is certain, if William H. Taft is not nominated by the Chicago convention, Winthrop Murray Crane will have much to say as to who will be chosen, and he will be the "Mark Hanna" of that candidate's campaign.

There is no great similarity, however, between McKinley's promoter and Senator Crane. Mark Hanna, when he came to an obstruction in his way, battered it down with catapults and rams. Murray Crane will not permit any obstructions to exist. He will look about two miles ahead all the time, observe a stone wall, and choose another route. If he manages the next campaign he will not open any headquarters, and there will be no brass bands. These are not the Crane methods. He will dart around, like a busy little tug, quietly, invisibly, and by and by the great crowd of spectators will behold the ponderous ship to which the Crane tug is attached making well-defined movement and edging in toward the dock—but they will overlook the tug. Senator Crane is not showy, and if he had his choice of a committee room at the capitol he would select one in the sub-basement.

There is no better judge of human nature in the Senate than he. If he does manage some man's campaign next fall, a good way to make easy money would be to play that man all three ways. He has infinite common sense, which at times makes him a unique figure in the Senate, never picks a "piker," and never makes a blunder.

In Massachusetts half the people call him "Murray." He was born with a golden spoon in his mouth. His father left him the Crane Paper Mills, at Dalton, and at seventeen he went to work there, and learned the business in every branch. To-day his private fortune is estimated at from \$5,000,000 to \$10,000,000. He has always been a generous spender for his party, but it can be said of him that his wealth has not been responsible for his political successes. Thoroughly democratic, he is known personally to all of the employees of his mills, and has always given them the care of a father in times of illness.

and death. He would rather do something for a friend in distress than for himself, and as he is always giving himself pleasure by such performances, he is a very busy and a very happy man. It is well known in Massachusetts that he has saved many firms and individuals from destruction in times of business stress, and he is affectionately known as the "Financial Undertaker." And he doesn't bury the corpse, either, but resuscitates it.

In the Senate Crane is known as the "Political Coroner." If there is a legislative corpse requiring expert attention, Crane is called in. If the Senate is in a snarl, and there is serious factional feeling on the Republican side, Crane is summoned. He is constant in his attendance upon these wakes. This has been one of his fortes in Massachusetts for years.

In the first session of the Fifty-ninth Congress he showed his genius for this business. A bitter fight raged between the White House and the Republican Senate over the Railroad Rate Bill. The majority were apparently hopelessly divided over the question of the court review provision. It looked as though the bill would be passed by a minority of the Republicans, acting with the Democrats. This, to be sure, would give to President Roosevelt a law which he craved, but it would be a Democratic law, and the Democratic party would get the credit for it. None realized this better than did the frail little Senator from Massachusetts. He finally effected a compromise, in which the President concurred, on the "Allison Amendment." The Republican party was saved from a wide split up the back. Winthrop Murray Crane did it.

All that he has accomplished in the Senate, however, has been done without previous knowledge of legislative affairs. He is an executive, not a law-maker. He had been a practical governor of Massachusetts, and put many reforms into operation, the necessity for which appealed to him as a business man. He entered politics in 1892, when, at the Minneapolis convention, he was elected Republican National Committeeman for Massachusetts. While he was governor, in 1902, a vacancy occurred in the cabinet of President Roosevelt. Up to that time the old McKinley cabinet had held over. As soon as President Roosevelt's hands were

free he offered the Treasury portfolio to Mr. Crane. Crane declined it. The Crane paper companies had, and still have, large contracts with the government. Thousands of dollars worth of Crane paper are used every year in the Treasury Department. It is not only unlawful, but unwise, for a man supplying wares to a government department to accept the chieftainship of that department, and Senator Crane naturally declined the position. This same question arose later when he entered the Senate. To avoid criticism when he decided to take the offered toga, he transferred to his son that mill which had exclusively contracts with the government.

Senator Henry Cabot Lodge looked with some favor upon Crane's appointment to the Senate. He was sure that Crane would leave the showy part of the job to him, and Crane has, but he has appropriated the practical part to himself. Senator Lodge gets more jobs for his constituents, but Senator Crane is building the greater reputation.

Crane will never try to undermine the senior senator. He plays no tricks. Hence, Lodge has accepted the situation, and has settled down to the accomplishment of his ambition, which is to become the chairman of the Committee on Foreign Relations when the distinguished Shelby M. Cullom steps aside, and prevent the introduction of the primary system into Massachusetts, which would result in some other man obtaining his job.

Unfortunately for the peace of mind of Senator Lodge, President Roosevelt wished Massachusetts to send a delegation to the Chicago convention instructed for William Howard Taft. Senator Lodge proceeded to deliver the goods. Senator Crane took the position that the selection of an instructed delegation would simply mean that the delegates to the convention might just as well don Western Union messenger boy uniforms. He has contended that only by an uninstructed delegation could the greatest popular participation in the Republican convention be secured. Hence there is raging in Massachusetts to-day one of the fiercest political fights in the country.

If the Taft managers had not attempted to tie, bind and deliver the delegates for their candidate, it is probable that the

Secretary of War might have secured a large majority of them. Those who know the temper of Massachusetts declare that the Taft tactics have made many independent men, who might have favored him, oppose him in the interests of independence in politics. And it is said that Taft is weaker in that state to-day than when Senator Lodge started out to hand the delegates, sealed, over to the administration. Winthrop Murray Crane has seen to that.

There was an attempt made to belittle Crane when he first ran for lieutenant-governor, because he was a nonshowy person, with an unimpressive appearance in general — but it failed. Crane saw to that. He is a man of peace, in business and politics, but with his back to the wall he becomes a fighter. Diplomacy is his weapon, but he can wield a bludgeon, although he may have to use both hands to do it. Since he put Sam Winslow, who opposed him for lieutenant-governor, in the vanquished class, he has had no opposition. Even Sam Winslow is now on "his side."

Hence it has come about that Senator Crane holds the balance of power in the

destinies of Secretary Taft. If Crane would "come out" for Taft, and throw New England's delegates into his ample lap, the nomination of the War Secretary would be practically assured, for New England has eighty-two delegates in the Republican national convention, and Massachusetts is the leader among the states in that section.

A short time since things reached so critical a stage that the nomination for the Vice-Presidency on the ticket with Mr. Taft was held out to him, if he would but be a "Taft" man. Senator Crane is not anybody's "man." He did not even consider the offer which was tendered to him.

It is probable that the fight now in progress in Massachusetts over the candidacy of Secretary Taft will not split the Republican party in that state, although a similar quarrel among Democrats would disrupt them, and there will be no open rupture between the senators. Senator Crane will probably win, in Massachusetts, his struggle for freedom of expression on the part of delegates in a national convention. Senator Lodge will bark, but he will not bite. Senator Lodge has an ambition.

THE LITERATURE OF JOYLESSNESS

BY

FRANCIS LAMONT PEIRCE



WITHIN the past few years, on the American stage, we have had presentations of Shakespeare's "Midsummer Night's Dream," "Twelfth Night," and "As You Like It." The success which these productions enjoyed is sufficient to refute the oft-repeated assertion that the public will not go to see Shakespeare.

And what brilliant and enchanting oases these plays made in the generally arid waste of the modern drama! Moonlight revels in fairyland, sun-bathed Illyria, green-bowered Arden: how different

from the scenes that the stern old Norwegian drew, up there in the cold, dark North. What a prodigal luxuriance of fancy, what an exuberant joyousness, what sheer poetic magic, what rich and genial creations of imaginative genius, what a vibrant, pulsing spirit of youth and life and love and beauty, are revealed in those plays of the great Elizabethan! It would seem as if the primal Earth Spirit, the spirit which in Goethe's *Faust* "weaves the living garment of deity," had entered into the soul of the Stratford player as he wrote these comedies, and decreed that whatever he might touch should spring into forms of rarest charm and pure delight.

But Shakespeare wrote when the world was young, when the sun still shone bright on flowers and field, and the soul of man drank in the glory of it and was simple and calm and glad. He wrote before Schopenhauer wrote, before Leopardi wrote, before Nietzsche wrote, before the cold and callous man of science peered out into the infinite spaces of the star depths and into the rocks and ruins of the past, before Darwin and Haeckel and Spencer assailed the work of the Man of Nazareth, before the seething turmoil of a complex society begot the *Weltschmerz* and the spiritual unrest and the bitter questionings and ceaseless cravings of the present.

So we do not have any more *Midsummer Night's Dreams* or *Twelfth Nights*. Instead of Shakespeare we have Ibsen. Instead of Oberon, we have Peer Gynt; instead of Rosalind we have Hedda Gabler; instead of Viola we have Ellida Wangel, "The Lady From the Sea." Instead of Hermia and Orlando, Mr. Thomas Hardy has given us Tess of the D'Urbervilles and Jude the Obscure. The literature of the present bears somewhat the same relation to the literature of Shakespeare's time that Arnold Böcklin's "Todten-Insel" bears to a landscape by Corot.

What have become of the beauties that poor Keats dreamed of — of the

magic casements opening on the foam
Of perilous seas, in faery lands forlorn!

We no longer have such pictures as that of The moving waters at their priest-like task
Of pure ablution, round earth's human shores,
or that incomparable one that Shelley drew in "The Cloud":

That orb'd maiden, with white fire laden,
Whom mortals call the moon,
Glides glimmering o'er my fleece-like floor,
By the midnight breezes strewn.

We of the modern world seem to have lost, in great measure, the power of wonder and delight in the marvelous, the beautiful, the strange and subtle things of life. Our poetic sensitiveness, our responsiveness to

All beauty, and all starry majesties,
And dim trans-stellar things,

as Francis Thompson phrases it, have been appreciably dulled. The magic suggestion of "an elfin storm from faery land" or "twilight saints and dim emblazonings" no longer calls forth the eager imaginative

comprehension that it once did. We are no longer naive. We have become sophisticated; we are the victims of disillusionment.

People nowadays look back with amusement, not untinged with contempt, upon the emotional and sentimental raptures of the eighteenth century literature, upon Wertherism and the *comédie larmoyante* and Richardson's novels. These productions are thought to be rather mawkish now. Yet one likes occasionally to turn from the neurasthenic heroes and heroines of modern European literature to Goethe's Werther, the gentle, loving dreamer, the sweet, sad, emotional idealist, keenly alive to sensuous influences and perceiving the mystic harmonies of nature. And one sometimes wonders if the ultra-modern school of writers would not be more truly human and more universally intelligible if they gave fuller expression, not only to man's sense of beauty, but to the gentler and more appealing emotions of the heart.

Time was when the public welcomed gladly the works of poets who sang of joyous beings who "wander on silver wings among the blossoms of earth, breathing perfumes on the flowers, or rest in buds of the moss-rose in palaces lighted by the sparkling gems of jewelled crowns." But contemporary European literature, at least, gives us nothing like this or like "Werther" or like "Twelfth Night." But we have the jarring slam of the front door as Nora leaves "A Doll's House"; we have Sudermann's Magda stepping over the corpse of the poor, old-fashioned colonel, out into the modern world, whose witching allurements she has been unable to resist; we have Hauptmann's Helene, lusted after by her own drink-maddened father, stabbing herself to death — "Before Sunrise." And as if this were not enough Oscar Wilde paints for us the picture of Salome kissing and cuddling the gory head of John the Baptist under the green flare of a stage lamp!

Most modern European literature seems to be either morbidly brutal and pessimistic or wildly erotic; in surveying this work we find ourselves confronted in turn by the "flowers of evil" and the gloom and mire of naturalism. Germany, whose "intellectuals" not long ago were acclaiming the ravings of Teamster Henschel and the leprous despair of Poor Henry as the

summit of dramatic art, has been taken by storm by "Salome," whose atmosphere, no less than that of Hauptmann's dramas, is the very antithesis of a sanely joyous outlook on life.

As an illustration of the fermentation, the "yeast-stirring," the revolution in moral values which is taking place in European thought-life, I will venture to translate some things that Herr Rudolph Lothar says in a book on the modern drama published not long ago in Germany. The author scoffs at the objections which "burgher respectability" raises against this drama of Wilde's. He ridicules the *pater familias* who "has no comprehension of raptures and ecstasies of color." The characters in this drama are, in Nietzsche's phrase, "beyond good and evil," like the people of the Renaissance — Cæsar and Lucretia Borgia, for instance. Most persons are horrified at the Borgias. But Herr Lothar says: "I, however, would willingly give, for a glimpse of Lucretia's glimmering flesh, shining from beneath her veils, or for a flash of the great Cæsar's sword, all the ethics and all the moralizing sermons of the worthy *bourgeoisie*." When he sees "Salome" he feels "as if there blossoms once again, in its primal glow and splendor, but with a gleam of colors and with the refined perfume of modern night, that Flower of Evil which those old *condottieri* of pleasure tore down from heaven." Comment on these passages would be wholly gratuitous.

But our principal objection is not to the class of literature in which the mouth of a prophet is described as "redder than the feet of him who cometh from a forest where he hath slain a lion and seen gilded tigers." Compared with the soul-killing literature of darkness and savagery and disease, the literature of passion is spiritually innocuous.

Look at a few of the subjects of modern plays and novels: "The Power of Darkness," "Red Laughter," "The Triumph of Death," "Ghosts," "When We Dead Awaken," "Dame Care," "The End of Sodom," "Lonely Souls." The very titles are gruesome, but not nearly so gruesome as the contents of these and many other works. After perusing many of the productions of Hauptmann, Ibsen, and their followers we might be excused for asking:

"Are we here traversing the field of one of the fine arts, designed to afford enjoyment, æsthetic gratification, and insight into the normal and essential aspects of existence, or are we rather being conducted through a morgue or hospital for the criminal insane?"

Degeneracy, death and desolation, misery, gloom, terror, morbidity, eccentricity, disillusionment, cynicism, pessimism, misanthropy, psychopathy, sociology, frank and brutal sensuality — all these and much more we have — but very little joy. The "little old world" seems sick at heart, and the really vital and significant literature of the present — the literature that reflects the typical modern *Weltanschauung* — is an embodiment of despair, world-weariness, and disgust with life. Life becomes, with Thomas Hardy, a "thing to be endured."

The color of most modern literature is drab and somber, and there echoes through it what Gordon Craig, in speaking of "Rosmersholm" calls "the long-drawn-out horn of death." The modern school of writers have investigated everything, they have exposed with relentless irony all the baseness and all the weakness of man, they have brought before us in lurid colors the "chaos of thought and passion, all confused"; and apparently the conclusion which they reach is that of Michael Kramer in Hauptmann's drama: "Death is the mildest form of life. The activities of the great world are the shudderings of fever."

The "morbid vaporings" of Strindberg, the alternate grossness and spirituality of Paul Verlaine, the unpleasant social dramas of Jose Echegaray, are all characteristic of the modern literary attitude. But everything that went before seems, if we may believe the reports of the St. Petersburg critics, to have been pale and mild when compared with the unrestrained bitterness, the fierce rebellion against God and man, displayed in the recent play, "The Life of Man," by the young Russian writer Leonid Andrieff: a drama of sordidness, pain, and sorrow; of the destruction of the fleeting illusions of love and joy; of the hollowness and mockery and hypocrisy of life; a drama of moral and spiritual decay, in which The Man dies "in a grog-shop, amid brutal and filthy creatures, raving and cursing,

passing into non-existence." If we may judge from extracts and criticisms, this production must be instinct with the spirit of a more gloomy and implacable Swift: a spirit of dark doubt and passionate dissatisfaction, of contempt and scorn, of anguish gnawing at the heart.

Instead of saying with Dante

Non ragioniam di lor, ma guarda e passa,

the creators of modern European literature dwell only too often upon things that can arouse only aversion and disgust. The *bete humaine*, it is true, is not now generally portrayed in the unblushing hideousness of the ultra-naturalistic school. The harsh, forbidding colors have as a rule been toned down somewhat. But the Schopenhauerist atmosphere, the uniform sadness of outlook, still persist in that portion of literature which can lay claim to genius. Nor are they unaccompanied by the indelicacy, the appeal to prurient curiosity, and the laying bare of noxious moral conditions, against which Max Nordau protested so vigorously.

The ocean of the spirit "brings the eternal note of sadness in"; and this attitude of mind would seem to have become so deeply engrafted in modern thought that nothing is capable of altering it but that glowing dawn and glorious rebirth sung of by Shelley, the visionary, in the last chorus of "Hellas":

The world's great age begins anew,
The golden years return,
The earth doth like a snake renew
Her winter weeds outworn;
Heaven smiles, and faiths and empires gleam
Like wrecks of a dissolving dream.

Sudermann has a play called "Es lebe das Leben" — "The Joy of Living" — but the title is merely sarcasm. Hauptmann's spasmodic attempts at gayety serve only to accentuate the fundamental somberness of his genius. Occasionally he gives us a comedy, like "Und Pippa tanzt," or "Die Jungfern von Bischofsberg," but it is evident that his pen finds more congenial material in the stark horror of "The Weavers," the pathological tragedy of Teamster Henschel, or Hannele's fevered visions of celestial bliss as she lies dying in the vulgar ugliness of an almshouse.

What a spectacle was that presented at the initial performance of "Before Sunrise" on the Berlin "Free Stage," when

Doctor Castan, the well-known Berlin physician, sat in a conspicuous position in the audience, swinging a certain surgical instrument which need not be mentioned here. Rudolph Lothar says truly that the pathological always had an attraction for Hauptmann; the problem of inherited alcoholism is treated in several of his works; disease of one kind or another is a prominent element in all of them. The poetic and mystic idealism of Heinrich the Bell-Founder — "the disinherited child of the Sun, that longs for home" — affords but little offset to the morbid mentality or degraded passions of most of the other characters that Hauptmann's genius has created. Hauptmann's art, as Kuno Francke says, blossoms upon "a hideous, pestilential pool"; he offers us, not "the universally and harmoniously human," but types of the "abnormal and the diseased."

Maxim Gorky says of his own works: "I know the great fault of my books: they can never give pleasure." And it is probably not too much to say that, despite the tremendous realism and the power of pitiless social analysis displayed in Gorky's works, their uniform portrayal of squalor, depravity, and dull-eyed, hopeless wretchedness will forever bar them from the number of really great literary works.

In a recent German book on Ibsen, the "grim skald" of Norway is extolled as "a mountain-wanderer, who raises his hands to the sun, the pure hands of the priest and the judge." One wonders whether this is as true a characterization as the one which has been bestowed upon Ibsen by less sympathetic readers, viz., "a pessimistic decadent." Ibsen seems at times to have a positive fondness for the sordid and the nasty. The character of Doctor Rank in "A Doll's House" is entirely unnecessary to the action, and was apparently introduced merely in order that Ibsen might let us know that the doctor was dying of consumption of the spine because his father was a "waster." The whole business about the Alving family is too repulsive to talk about. What are we to think when a prominent American alienist writes for a medical magazine an article analyzing and explaining the various types of insanity in Ibsen's plays? What are we to say when Hedda Gabler insists on Eilert Lovberg committing suicide

"beautifully," or when "the lady from the sea" keeps shrinking from the Stranger with hysterical exclamations about "those eyes, those eyes"?"

Modern literature is essentially brutal. From Bernard Shaw's "Revolutionist's Handbook" we cull this maxim: "Compassion is the fellow-feeling of the unsound." Nietzsche says: "When you go to see a woman, don't forget the whip." And the words of Wolf Larsen exemplify one aspect of the modern spirit: "I believe that life is a mess. It is like yeast, a ferment, a thing that moves and may move for a minute, an hour, a year, or a hundred years, but that in the end will cease to move. The big eat the little, that they may continue to move, the strong eat the weak, that they may retain their strength. The lucky eat the most and move the longest, that is all."

The "blonde animal" of Nietzsche is on the march through modern literature, as is the man who can say with the mad singer of the Superman: "Everything that I grasp becomes light; everything that I leave becomes ashes; flame am I assuredly." The passion for self-realization, the craving for fullness of existence, have led to the creation of a character-type which, in Professor Otto Heller's words, is "a hybrid between an overman and a decadent," an individual who is "part brute, part woman, and part god, nothing of man in him at all."

The melancholy and naturalistic strain is found in certain of the poems of Stephen Phillips, particularly "The Woman With the Dead Soul," "The Wife," "The New De Profundis," and "The Question." Six lines from the first-named of these poems illustrate the whole modern mood:

She with a soul was born; she felt it leap
Within her: it could wonder, laugh, and weep.
But dismally as rain on ocean blear
The days upon that human spirit dear
Fell; and existence lean, in sky dead-gray
Withholding steadily, starved it away.

Here in America we have had "The Jungle" and "The House of Mirth" and "The Great Divide." Most of us were surprised to find William Vaughn Moody, poet and scholar, author of "The Fire-bringer," writing what William Winter calls "the apotheosis of a drunken ruffian." Only to think that "The Great

Divide" was written by the man who could write such lines as these:

'Twixt Berenice's tangled hair
And that blue region of the morning where
The bright wind-shaken lyre
Sheds down the dawn its spilt of silver fire,
We saw him stoop and run upon the air,
Shielding from region gusts the stolen flame,
But from a steep cloud warping up the west
A curse of lightning came.

Post-Nietzschean and thoroughly "modern" is Mr. George Sylvester Viereck's poem "Nineveh," a powerful, wanton, hectic production, an idea of which may be gained from the three following stanzas:

I, too, the fatal harvest gained
Of them that sow with seed of fire
In passion's garden — I have drained
The goblet of thy sick desire.

I from thy love had bitter bliss,
And ever in my memory stir
The after-savours of thy kiss —
The taste of aloes and of myrrh.

And yet I love thee, love unblessed
The poison of thy wanton's art;
Though thou be sister to the Pest
In thy great hands I lay my heart."

We can not inquire here into all the deep-lying causes of the joylessness and lawlessness of modern literature. Suffice it to say that the modern world has lost its faith — its faith in dogmatic religion, in conventional ethics, in traditional ideas of economics and of government. It is groping blindly and convulsively for truth, for the light.

We are passing through a transition period, in which, before a rational, scientific, and harmonious new faith can be built up, we must have the stages in which the world of thought is ruled by gloom and insecurity. In so far as modern literature reflects sanely and restrainedly the storms and battles of life in this intensely vital period, we can not legitimately object to the picture that it presents before us. But when its insistence upon disease and misery, upon "the wanton and the macabre," becomes exaggerated, morbid and gratuitous, we are ready to protest.

Before concluding, another aspect of the question suggests itself. The overwhelming prevalence in our theaters of musical comedy, comic opera, extravaganza and burlesque grieves many people. Unquestionably it is to be deplored. But can one really blame the tired business man, or in

fact any man with red blood in his veins, for preferring the twinkling feet and radiant raiment of chorus girls to the spectacle, however edifying and intellectual, of a young woman pointing and saying "There, he stands behind you now — the drunken ravisher, the human beast," or of Mrs. Alving bending over the body of Oswald in "Ghosts" while that individual mumbles, "Give me the sun, mother, the sun — the sun." This preference may not accord with conventional ideas of fitness, but it has its origin in the same instinct

that moves any normal-minded person to admire one of Degas' impressionistic studies of ballet dancers rather than such a painting as Anton Wiertz' "Premature Burial."

Psychological analysis, morbid introspection, social vivisection — these we can find abundantly in modern European literature; but we look in vain for the idyllic joyousness, the clear, sweet, sane appreciation of the worth of life, which are presented to us in "As You Like It" or "A Midsummer Night's Dream."

THE FRANCO-BRITISH EXHIBITION AND THE FOURTH INTERNATIONAL OLYMPIAD

BY

LOUIS G. NORTHLAND



CENTURY ago the desolate fields at historic Shepherd's Bush in the West End of London were a favorite resort with the young bloods of the town. On this same spot France

and England will now engage, metaphorically as well as actually, in a friendly bout with the foils, through the medium of the great Franco-British Exhibition which will be formally opened on May 15 by M. Fallieres, President of the French Republic, at the invitation of King Edward.

The exhibition will be industrial and educational, completely representative of the arts, crafts and inventions of the two countries and their colonies. There will be no cheap side shows. The Olympic games will occupy the stadium for some weeks in July and October, and French and English athletic meetings are to be held on various occasions. A great display of fireworks is to be given several times a week during the season. The nearest approach to the "Midway" of the World's Fair at Chicago will be an old

Irish and a modern Somali village that invite comparison; a scenic railway and a marine shooting range; the gardens with their orchestras and regimental bands. Indoors the visitors to the exhibition will not be troubled by vendors of souvenirs or those trifles which used to be called *articles de Paris*. The entrance fee has been placed unusually low, being only twenty-five cents.

The French middle class, and in particular the English, like to take their amusements seriously. British solidity and French grace will therefore present a combination in exhibition attendance unlike any other.

The Englishman and his club are inseparable. Therefore there will be two clubhouses on the grounds: the Garden Club, situated in the Court of Progress, and facing the band-stand, which is sunken in its center, and the Sports Club immediately adjoining the stadium. These clubs, it is specially announced, will only cater for the wants of members.

British phlegm and apathy are national and traditional characteristics, and this has been and is one of the greatest difficulties for the officials of the exhibition

to combat, judging from the appeal in the official organ of the exhibition in its last number, which is of sufficient interest to quote:

The success of the exhibition is already assured, from an industrial point of view, by the number of important exhibitors, British as well as French, who have taken ample space in which to show their goods to advantage; but a little more enthusiasm is still necessary on the part of our great representative firms if the opportunity afforded of securing so powerful a commercial ally as France is to be grasped. Possibly some whose names are household words among us are not gifted with prevision. At any rate, it will amount almost to a national disaster if our Captains of Industry do not foresee that the most hotly contested event in the Stadium will be child's play compared with the trial of strength between France and the British Empire in the exhibition. M. Lefevre, Chairman of the Municipal Council of Paris, whose recent visit to London with his brother councilors called forth such a remarkable demonstration of good feeling, sounded a fraternal note of warning when he said: "Parisians are anxious to deal with the United Kingdom, and would rather do so than with other nations; but to enable them to do this, British manufacturers must take the trouble to show us what they make and what they have to sell."

The proposal of the exhibition emanated from the French Chamber of Commerce in London and received the warm support of the French Minister of Commerce. A large representative meeting was held at the Mansion House on July 11, 1906, with the Lord Mayor in the chair, when a resolution in favor of the exhibition and approving the steps already taken, was unanimously passed. It was resolved that all profits resulting from the exhibition should be devoted to some public purpose, to be jointly determined upon by representatives of the two countries concerned. The plan met with the cordial approval of the President of the French Republic and the King of England, as well as of the French and English premiers and other ministers of the two countries.

The general committee appointed consists of over two thousand members, including many of the most prominent men of science, art, letters and business in the British empire; an executive committee is presided over by Viscount Selby, ex-speaker of the House of Commons. The Duke of Argyll, brother-in-law of King Edward, is honorary president, while the presidency is undertaken by the Earl of Derby, one of the largest guarantors of

A DETAIL OF THE BRITISH APPLIED ARTS
PALACE AT THE FRANCO-BRITISH
EXHIBITION

the exhibition. The project was from the start an assured success. The executive committee offered the position of Commissioner-General of the exhibition to Imre Kiralfy, who accepted the appointment. As is well known, he is of international reputation both as an organizer of spectacular entertainments on both sides of the Atlantic and as a popular writer. No more suitable man could have been selected, for he rendered the same service for the British section of the Universal Exhibition at Liege in 1905 and was also Director-General of the Empire of India Exhibition, 1895; Victorian Era Exhibition, 1897; Universal Exhibition, 1898; Woman's International Exhibition, 1900; and several others.

The site secured for the exhibition at

THE MAKING OF TO-MORROW

HOW THE WORLD OF TO-DAY IS PREPARING
FOR THE WORLD OF TO-MORROW

How Bradford Feeds the Underfed Children in Its Schools

By John Spargo

AUTHOR OF "THE BITTER CRY OF THE CHILDREN";
"UNDERFED SCHOOL CHILDREN," ETC.

THE poverty problem is universal. In the most prosperous times and in the most prosperous nations, there are always many who are miserably poor, some by reason of the "sins of their fathers," others by reason of their own sins, and still others by reason of social causes beyond the control of any individual.

And wherever there is poverty, its burden falls heavily upon the little children. Among the babies of the poor the death-rate is appallingly high, and the physical development of the children of the poor is, in all countries, inferior to that of the well-to-do classes. Figures from our own New England States, from the English factory districts, from German and Russian cities and from the peasant districts of Austria and Italy, all go to prove the universality of this condition.

Recently the Municipal Council of Berlin has been considering the extension of its system of providing meals for the children in its schools who are chronically underfed. In many other European cities this system of school meals has been developed upon an extensive scale, particularly in Paris. Now England has adopted the system, an act of parliament having been passed enabling cities to provide school meals for necessitous school children whenever it seems advisable to do so.

Some two years ago, the present writer hazarded a guess that there must be at least two million boys and girls of school age in the United States who were more or less seriously underfed. That was frankly a guess, based upon wholly inadequate data, most of which was crude and lacking in scientific precision. Nothing more was

claimed for it than that it was a guess based upon the most extensive observation of the problem yet made.

There was afterward formed in New York a Committee on the Physical Welfare of School Children, consisting of many well-known philanthropic and social workers, physicians and educators, which has made an investigation into the subject upon a very small scale, but interesting and valuable nevertheless. The results of that investigation tend to confirm, upon the whole, my own estimate of the problem. They took some one thousand four hundred school children, representing various classes and nationalities, and made a careful examination of their social and physical condition.

No man knows, of course, how far those one thousand four hundred children taken from various parts of New York city can be regarded as representative of the children of the nation. To be sure of our ground, it would be necessary to have ten times as many children examined in each of the largest cities, and a proportionate number in scores of representative cities, towns and rural villages. But so far as the results go, taking them for what they are worth — and I am personally inclined to the opinion that they are not far from being representative and typical of the children of the nation — it would seem that there are to-day not less than twelve million children in our public schools needing medical attention, and that not less than one million two hundred and forty-eight thousand such children are suffering from malnutrition — from underfeeding so serious in extent, and so chronic, as to have produced actual disease.

Whether the condition is really so serious, or whether the best way to meet the evil is by providing school meals, are questions which ought to receive serious

and intelligent consideration. One of the strongest reasons which can be advanced in support of the creation of a Federal Health Department, with its executive head in the cabinet, is the need of careful attention to this grave problem.

In the meantime, all experiments made with a view to solving the problem, whether in this or other countries, should be carefully noted for the lessons they may afford us when we come to deal with the evil, as, in our largest cities at least, we must do at some not far-distant date. Among recent experiments that of the city of Bradford, England, is most significant.

The Bradford School Board has been exceedingly fortunate in having in its service an extremely able and wise woman, Miss Margaret McMillan, whose studies of child-psychology have given her a foremost place among students, and endeared her name to thousands of educators and workers for children's welfare. And with her have been associated many able and energetic men and women. Under her fine, wise leadership they have pushed the question of the physical welfare of the children to the very forefront.

These people found, by actual experience as teachers, that there were many children in the lower grades of certain schools who were chronically underfed. Many of them were weak and undeveloped and many others dull and listless, quite unable to learn properly. When, therefore, the "Feeding of Children Act" was passed, Bradford was among the first of the large provincial cities to adopt it. The great value of their experiment thus far lies in the thoroughness of their methods.

Instead of making a contract for certain quantities of cheap but wholesome food, and distributing it to the children in a makeshift dining-room, as some British cities had done; or setting up improvised and poorly equipped kitchens in school classrooms, as some other places had done, serving soup or oatmeal porridge daily, Bradford decided to copy the excellent example of some Swedish and one or two Italian cities, and established first of all a well-equipped cooking establishment, from which the several school dining-rooms are supplied.

With admirable civic economy, the au-

thorities realized that a great deal of expense could be avoided, simply by utilizing heat that was going to waste. So they partitioned off a large room next to the heating apparatus of one of the public baths and established their central food station there. Their next concern was to get the most scientific modes of cooking, and the best appliances possible. There are four immense pots for cooking the soups, stews, vegetables, and so on, with a crane for lifting them. There are machines for paring fruit and vegetables and a system of large baths for washing the vegetables before they are placed in the cooking pots or the ovens. These ovens, of which there are two, are enormous affairs with numerous shelves for tiers of dishes. The cooks are highly skilled.

There is nothing haphazard about the cooking, either: nothing is left to chance. The medical advisers have gone thoroughly into the science of food values: menus for children of different ages have been prepared, and no dinner is ever chosen unless it has been approved by the medical advisers, alike as to quality and quantity. The amount of proteids, fat and carbohydrates contained in each meal is thus ascertained. I know of no other establishment of its kind anywhere in which the science of nutrition is so carefully studied.

Another important feature is the care taken to avoid monotony in the diet. As in our well-to-do homes we seek to have a variety on our tables, so the managers of these children's dinners aim at variety. At present there are seventeen different menus, which are chosen in order, one for each day. Thus it happens that the same dish is never served more than once in three weeks. It is almost impossible to comprehend the enormous amount of love and labor which has been expended to get these results.

When the meals have been properly cooked they are packed in wooden boxes lined with zinc, so that they can be delivered at the schools "piping hot." The municipal motor cars are laden with the boxes of food and other boxes of clean, warm dishes, and in a very little while the children are enjoying their wholesome and bounteous meal.

Let us take a peep into one of the

dining-rooms. There are, perhaps, some two hundred children here, eager, glad and hungry, but so polite! If you have ever been into the dining-rooms of ordinary children's institutions, you will be surprised first of all by the happy contrast this dining-room presents. Instead of a long, narrow table, covered with cheap oil-cloth perhaps, there are many small tables so that groups of friends may sit together, just as in the best restaurants. Each table is covered with a snowy white cloth, the children have table napkins and—there are bright flowers upon every table! These, I believe, are gifts to the schools, but they are never absent.

The children's faces and hands are as clean as the immaculate table linen, and the hair of every child is carefully brushed, though there are some who seem to have plastered it against their heads. You see, they have come to the dining-room direct from the wash-room, clean, beaming and sociable. They sit down at the little tables and there is the hum of gay chatter. Little girls, perhaps eleven or twelve years old, with big white aprons and white sleeves, move about among the tables, and at first sight one takes them for little waitresses. But they are not. They are the monitresses of several classes who are acting the part of hostesses and helpers. They go about attending to the comfort of the diners. Among the very young children they are especially helpful. Here a little tot is trying to manipulate his napkin, and he is most grateful when a sharp-eyed, kindly monitress comes to his aid and tucks it around his collar. Or a little miss has had the misfortune to spill something upon the cloth and a good monitress comes and deftly lays a napkin over the spot, comforts the child and infuses the proper spirit into the group.

But I have anticipated a little. Before the meal actually begins, the children sing grace. All can join in this simple grace-song, no matter what the nationality or the religious faith may be. Two hundred child voices fill the long room with rich music for a few seconds, and before the last notes have really died away into silence there is another sort of music, music of clattering dishes, knives and forks and the chatter of happy children.

And then when the meal is finished, the

little boys and girls leave the room in happy groups, some for the playground, some to find a quiet corner for talk. The tables are cleared, the dirty dishes are whizzed back to the central station in the municipal automobiles, the flowers are placed in the various classrooms to brighten the rest of the day for teacher and children. Perhaps after school they will be sent to the homes of sick children, as a token of the thoughtfulness and love of teacher and pupils, or they may be sent to cheer sick mothers in the tenement homes from which the children come. And all afternoon, instead of hungry, listless or sullen, irritable scholars, the teachers have scholars who are at once able and willing to be taught. Education to these wise teachers means the development of a sound mind in a sound body. They depend upon a sound physical development as the basis of mental and spiritual growth.

The great strength of this Bradford experiment lies in the fact that it is inspired by a spirit very different from that of the ordinary charity-worker. In everything the aim is the development of the children, physically, mentally and morally. The placing of bright flowers upon the tables every day represents loving understanding of the child mind. Coarse, heavy dishes might be used, but instead there is pretty china, chosen with as much care as we should exercise in our own homes, for the reason that the teachers believe in the refining influence of beauty and cleanliness.

And the scheme has succeeded beyond the expectations of the most enthusiastic. The difficulties have been much less numerous and formidable than was anticipated. As one of the teachers wrote to me lately: "Not only do the children learn better in school, being physically better equipped, but what is hardly of less importance is that in their homes they are doing their best to live up to the ideal the school sets. We can trace the influence of the child upon the home through the mother sometimes."

Such is the Bradford plan. I hesitate to describe it as "Municipal Socialism," for the reason that I am not at all sure that under Socialism such schemes of communal feeding would be necessary or even tolerated. The best system of school

BOOKS AND READING

Some of the Strongest Books of the Month

Fiction

Robins: Come and Find Me. A vivid story of Alaska. The Century Company, \$1.50.

Beach: The Barrier. Also an Alaskan story, more mature than "The Spoilers," and full of dramatic force. Harper Brothers, \$1.50.

Sinclair: The Metropolis. A fascinating though extravagant picture of "high life" in New York. Moffat-Yard, \$1.50.

Danby: The Heart of a Child. Not a book for children, but one that will make you think about the morals of the theater. Macmillan, \$1.50.

History and Biography

Lord Acton: Cambridge Modern History. Vol. V. Age of Louis XIV. A standard work that disentangles a very complex but highly important period. Macmillan, \$4.

Weale: The Coming Struggle in Eastern Asia. A remarkable and authoritative account of the operations of Japan in Manchuria and Korea. Macmillan, \$3.50 net.

Sociology and Economics

Wells: New Worlds for Old. A lucid, sane and untechnical presentation of up-to-date socialism. Macmillan, \$1.50 net.

Day: The History of Commerce. A book every business man should read. Longmans, Green, \$2.

Ross: Sin and Society. A book every intelligent man and woman ought to master. Houghton, Mifflin, \$1 net.

Religion and Philosophy

Powell: Christian Science. An elaborate presentation of objections to the movement inaugurated by Mrs. Eddy. Putnam, \$1.

Gilbert: The History of the Interpretation of the Scriptures. An untechnical introduction to the method of modern Bible study. Macmillan, \$1.50 net.

Poetry and Drama

D'Annunzio: The Daughter of Jorio. A most unpleasant tragedy of great power. Little, Brown, \$1.

Noyes: The Golden Hynde. A collection of poems by one of the most genuine of to-day's poets. Macmillan, \$1.25.

Science

Huxley: Aphorisms and Reflections. The quintessence of Huxley's thought. Macmillan, \$1.

Arrhenius: Worlds in the Making. A new theory of the origin of the universe based on a study of light. Harper's, \$1.60 net.

Beers: A Mind that Found Itself. A human document of most intense interest covering the psychology of insanity. Longmans, Green, \$1.50 net.

History and Travel

The Coming Struggle in Eastern Asia. By B. L. Putnam Weale. New York: Macmillan. Pp. 656. \$3.50 net.

The present volume is the fourth of the remarkable series which Mr. Weale has been issuing on the eastern situation. It is particularly concerned with Manchuria, with the present conditions, economic and otherwise, of Japan, and with the New China. It is particularly valuable

for its discussion of Manchuria, for Mr. Weale has traveled recently through this entire region and his opinions are thus reinforced by actual observation. Affairs are moving so rapidly in eastern Asia that information contained in this book is in the nature of a revelation to those men who have taken it for granted that Russia and Japan have been inactive since the Peace of Portsmouth. As a matter of fact, as Mr. Weale shows, the two countries have been prodigiously active in pushing their claims on the continent

of Asia. So quietly have the Japanese done this work that had it not been for the troubles in Korea, it is probable that the western world would have remained in complete ignorance of Japan's policies. Mr. Weale's book will serve to open the eyes of the West not only as to the situation in Manchuria and Korea, but also as to conditions in Japan itself. The impression left with the reader is that the situation in eastern Asia at the present time is but a truce; that even greater changes are in the immediate future than in the past, but with this difference: China and very possibly the United States will be factors in the new complications. With its surprising amount of information, its vivid style, and its genuine human interest, Mr. Weale's book, like the three which have preceded it, is to be counted as one of the most important of the works dealing with current history.

A very delightful travel book, and one which will be of interest not only to the many tourists who in these days visit the Greek Archipelago, but to those who stay at home as well, is Philip S. Marden's "*Greece and the Aegean Islands*" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., \$3 net). To the former it will serve as a practical handbook, full of helpful suggestions; and to the latter will furnish a readable description of ancient and modern Athens, of Delos, Crete and other islands that recall ancient history. The book is free from technicalities, and is beautifully illustrated with photographs.

An exceedingly interesting book is John P. Spears' "*History of the United States Navy*" (Scribner's, \$1.50 net). There is no book that in the same compass covers the subject so thoroughly and at the same time so vividly. Beginning with the Revolutionary War, it traces the development of the American navy to 1907. It is well proportioned, and, now that the navy is under fire, is a book to be read by every good citizen. It is just technical enough to make the reader feel that the civilian does not know all about naval affairs by inspiration.

Science

Mars and Its Canals. By Percival Lowell. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1906. \$2.50 net.

This volume is in many ways a decided improvement on Mr. Lowell's work on the same subject published some ten years ago. Some points emphasized in the earlier book, such as the series of figures representing measures by which he proved the existence of a "twilight arch" on Mars, which gave such a shock to observers familiar with the limitations of the micrometer in such work, are wisely omitted and the results are only referred to incidentally. The introduction is pleasing and sufficiently graphic. Chapter v, on the polar caps, is to be commended. It deals with the facts in a reasonable manner, its seemingly just conclusion being the old one that these caps are due to ice and snow similar to those on the earth. Chapter xiii, which describes the desert scenery of Arizona, as seen from the top of the San Francisco Mountains near Flagstaff, is valuable and suggestive, and may have much bearing on the explanation of some of the

Martian surface features. The so-called "seas" of the planet are shown not to be bodies of water, the not unreasonable belief being that they are regions of vegetation, while the reddish tracts may be deserts. This is a conclusion, however, that other observers with powerful telescopes arrived at during the observations of 1894, when the planet was last most favorably situated for northern observers.

Mr. Lowell goes into much detail concerning the Martian canals, which he would have the reader believe are due to the labor of the supposed inhabitants of Mars. These canals are for the distribution of the water from the Martian polar caps for irrigation purposes, the planet having become so aged and destitute of water that the precious little remaining in the transitory stage between snow and water at the poles is tapped by an extensive canal system for distribution all over the planet, through canals that in some instances are thousands of miles long. In the minute observational details that Mr. Lowell slowly unfolds, one is forced to the conclusion that he has had unconsciously an ultimate end in view which causes him so to dovetail these various (undoubtedly difficult) observations, that they end in a very plausible irrigation scheme, which one can conceive was aimed at from the beginning. This intricate irrigation system having been developed, the natural consequence is that a human intelligence must have done it, and hence the Man of Mars comes forward, whom Mr. Lowell has held back until the last two chapters. The general reader may not have noted that the scientific journals still have under discussion the adequacy of the water supply and the character of the atmosphere and the surface temperature of Mars. So that the conclusions drawn must be regarded with reserve. The objectivity of the markings called canals has also been discussed of late by well-qualified scientists with results that leave the matter somewhat open.

The widow of Thomas H. Huxley has selected from the great scientist's works a little volume of "*Aphorisms and Reflections*" (Macmillan, \$1). The selections make singularly pungent reading. They represent not so much the scientist as the man, and will enable one to get at his positions on practically all the various topics on which he expressed himself. The selections vary in length, from single sentences of epigrammatic force to those covering a couple of pages. Unless we greatly mistake, Huxley's influence in the future will be rather as one of the formers of public mind than as a technical scientist. This little volume is a collection of the various sorts of leaven he injected into the mass of nineteenth century thought.

Sociology and Economics

As an illustration of clever and effective reading, "*Sin and Society*," by Edward A. Ross (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., \$1 net), would be a noticeable book in its field. Besides its literary power it deals with a very important subject. The older theological views of sin were concerned primarily with the individual and individual wrongdoing. Professor Ross points out that

while the tendency to sin is constant, the forms in which it manifests itself vary with the stages of society. The book is concerned very largely with men in the corporate relations. It is a book to be read and pondered and read again.

In the admirable series of commercial textbooks published by Longmans, Green & Co., one of the recent additions is "*The History of Commerce*," by Clyde Day, Assistant Professor of Economic History in Yale University. The volume is a compact account of the development of commerce from the earliest times to the present. It has elaborate bibliographies, and is well arranged to serve as a text-book as well as a book for the general reader. It is particularly valuable on the rise of modern commerce, and will put the intelligent merchant in possession of a good deal of technical knowledge (\$2).

He is an active reader who keeps up with the different phases of socialism. A few years ago "*Looking Backward*" was hailed as embodying the last phase of socialistic thought. Now comes H. G. Wells, and in his "*New Worlds for Old*" (Macmillan, \$1.50) sets forth a conception of socialism which, while true to the fundamental conception of the socialization of capital, is more of the Fabian school and is far less doctrinaire than Marx. As a presentation of socialistic thought as it is working to-day in English politics, it is the most judicious and balanced discussion at the disposal of the general reader. Mr. Wells is no fanatic. He does not think socialism will make the millennium. He does believe, however, that in the modified form which he suggests socialism will carry forward into the realm of practical politics, is to be found the general course of economic and social development. Like all propaganda, the book magnifies all valuable data, but it is temperate despite its vigor. Mr. Wells discusses the objections to socialism, and particularly is concerned with the family in a socialistic state. Further, he draws in some detail a picture of what society would be under the new régime. It is a volume everybody ought to read, if for nothing more than to have one's sympathies and conscience quickened.

The Drama

Anything that Gabriel D'Annunzio writes is liable to be pathological, but it will always have power. "*The Daughter of Jorio*" (Little, Brown & Co.) is no exception to the rule. In its translation now given by Charlotte Porter, Pietro Isola and Alice Henry, it is very effective. As a story it is almost fearful in its intensity and its outcome. It is the tale of an unfortunate girl who finally falls a victim to the superstition and the fanaticism of the Abruzzi peasantry. D'Annunzio does not hesitate to carry human passion to its fiercest limit, and some of the scenes, particularly that in which a son kills a father and that in which the heroine is burned at the stake as a sorceress, are among the most powerful in recent dramatic writing. The introduction by Charlotte Porter is a discussion of D'Annunzio's own conception of the play, and is an admirable presentation of the persistent paganism that lay in the Christianity of the Middle Ages.

Percy Mackaye has already shown his power as a dramatist. His play, "*The Scarecrow*" (Macmillan, \$1.25 net) is described by him as a "tragedy of the ludicrous." It is based upon an old story, in Hawthorne's "*Mosses on an Old Manse*," of how a scarecrow was made by magic into a gentleman of the period. Mr. Mackaye on this theme has written a story of New England witchcraft which is tragic only in name. It is hardly more than a dramatic *jeu d'esprit*.

Charles Scribner's Sons have just published, in eleven volumes, *Ibsen's complete works* (\$1 each). Each volume is entirely revised and has an introduction by William Archer. The translations are made by him with the coöperation of other scholars, including Edmund Gosse. The volumes are well printed and are likely to become the definitive edition of Ibsen. The editorial work by Mr. Archer is especially valuable, and his introduction to "*Peer Gynt*" is a very effective piece of critical writing. Even the most uninitiated is brought into sympathy with Ibsen's purpose and point of view. Equally interesting, though not so elaborate, is Mr. Archer's introduction to "*The Master Builder*." Without elaborate discussion he treats the symbolism that lies in Ibsen without overestimating or underestimating its importance.

Professor Richard G. Moulton reissues the work he called "*The Moral System of Shakespeare*" as "*Shakespeare as a Dramatic Thinker*" (Macmillan, \$1.50 net), rewriting the introduction to make his point the more clearly. This is, in brief, that Shakespeare nowhere showed his personality in his work so plainly as in his arrangement of scenes and arguments. Though running counter to general opinion, the author's argument is cogent. The book is complementary to "*Shakespeare as a Dramatic Artist*."

Religion and Philosophy

The William Belden Noble Lectures, by Charles Cuthbert Hall, D.D., LL.D. (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., \$1.25 net), at the Phillips Brooks House, Harvard, for 1906, have been published under the title "*Christ and the Human Race*." President Hall, fresh from his recent travels in India, Ceylon and Japan, as Barrows Lecturer, brings a sane, earnest, authoritative interpretation of the present religious state of the Far East. The burden of his book is the crying need for a large spirit of brotherhood in Occidental intercourse with the Old East. He reminds the confident and boastfully energetic West of complementary qualities of as great if not greater excellence in the meditative East; and assures us that only by the exercise of the very spirit of Christ—the spirit of utter sympathy of man for man—can we hope to know and help the East. The missionaries are to go no longer with the message: "This is the Gospel which I know and which I teach you; but rather: Here is the Gospel which I know in part . . . Share it with me, O soul of the eastern world! Help me to know better, through you, that Gospel and that Christ!" The lectures are beautifully written, like all of President Hall's work. They exhibit strikingly that great gift of completely clothing a carefully articulated framework of design with appropriate grace of language and wealth of literary ornament.

"*The Formation of the New Testament*," by George H. Ferris (Griffith & Rowland Press, 90 cents net), is a well-written account of the development of the New Testament Canon in the early church. It is the result of much study and represents in a popular, but never careless fashion, the positions of the school of Harnack. Mr. Ferris' position is at points somewhat radical and will likely come with considerable shock to the rank and file of people who ordinarily buy the books of denominational publishing houses. The general effect of the book, however, ought to be a strengthening of the belief that the essence of Christianity is not a book, but a life.

Lyman P. Powell, rector of St. John's Church, Northampton, Massachusetts, has given us in his volume "*Christian Science, the Faith and Its Founder*" (Putnam, \$1.50) what is probably the best criticism of the new cult yet written. It is not as detailed as the volume by Mark Twain (Harper's, \$1.75), but it deals with the subject more systematically and with a larger perception of the problems involved. It discusses in detail the relations of Mrs. Eddy to Dr. Quimby, and sets forth the objections to the philosophical and theological positions which lie behind Christian Science. Although its final conclusion is unfavorable, it is in no sense a tirade, and does not lack in appreciation of the real services of the Christian Science movement. Mr. Powell's argument is intelligent, and in our judgment likely to appear unanswerable to those who have not already committed themselves to the new faith.

D. MacMillan's "*Life of George Matheson*" (Armstrong & Son, \$2 net) is peculiarly welcome. Its value lies not only in its exceptional attractiveness, but also on account of the man whose memory it will perpetuate. The biographer has done his work with a good perspective and deep sympathy. For most of us the opening chapters describing Matheson's life during the slow development of his blindness will be particularly appealing, but probably more important is the main discussion in which the author deals with the really great work of Matheson as a preacher and writer. It is a volume to be placed on the shelf with George Adam Smith's "*Life of Henry Drummond*."

Fiction

An altogether unusual book is Frank Danby's "*Heart of a Child*" (Macmillan, \$1.50). There are passages in it that would hardly do to read to children, but they are sure to interest readers, for the story deals with the career of a beautiful girl from the slums of London, who became a dancer and singer in vaudeville, was subjected to various temptations, and finally rose above them all to marry an English nobleman who tried to be a villain, but could not. The book is written without cynicism, and has some vivid pictures of stage life. And it leaves a good taste in the mouth.

Upton Sinclair wrote "*The Jungle*" to show the evils of one side of our civilization. He has now written "*The Metropolis*" (Moffat-Yard, \$1.50) to show the evils of the sort of life lived by the very rich. We do not know where Mr. Sinclair got his information about the very rich.

It seems to us that he got most of it from "yellow" newspapers. There may be men and women who spend money as lavishly as the characters in his novel; but we doubt if they are very numerous. The story absorbs the reader's interest, and ought to make a highly attractive addition to Mr. Sinclair's socialistic propaganda. It has the weakness of all the author's work in that it generalizes upon exaggerated and unusual data, but it is a book that will be read.

A story of real power as well as technical merit is Anna Robeson Burr's "*The Jessup Bequest*" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.50). It has the merit of introducing few characters and it moves along with something of the inevitableness of the Greek drama. It centers about the terms of a will, and involves hypocrisy on the part of an Episcopal clergyman of high standing, the severe virtue of a young man who is an agnostic, and the unconscious participation of the heroine in the deception of her grandfather, the clergyman. The real interest lies not in dramatic situations, although there is a remarkable account of the wreck of the hero in a storm on the Maine coast, but in the volume's rather extraordinary exposition of human character and motive.

Among the various volumes dealing with the relations of the Roman Church and modern society there are few better balanced than "*A Modern Prometheus*," by Martha Gilbert Dickinson Bianchi (Duffield, \$1.50). It is the story of a young New Englander who had separated from her husband, an Italian nobleman, and chanced upon a Jesuit father at Assisi. The story centers about the reaction of the New England conscience upon Roman Catholicism, and incidentally touches upon divorce and remarriage. Over against the story stands the Jesuit priest, in whom is the inward struggle between man and priest.

Frances Hodgson Burnett's "*The Shuttle*" has proved one of the most widely read and interesting of current novels. It is too long and too melodramatic for a real position in literature, but it is interesting, and at times exciting. (Scribner's, \$1.50.)

For a story of mystery, "*The Hemlock Avenue Mystery*," by Roman Doubleday (Little, Brown & Co., \$1.50), is well worth reading, for the reader really is in doubt as to who committed the deed which forms the center of the plot. And this is real commendation for a reading public that is by no means unaccustomed to detective stories.

"*Folks Back Home*" (The McClure Company, \$1.50), by Eugene Wood, is a collection of stories centering about a little town in central Ohio. Many of them have already appeared in the magazine, but they are such realistic human documents that they have something of a permanent value. They certainly make strong reading.

Miss W. K. Clifford's "*Proposals to Kathleen*" (A. S. Barnes & Co., \$1.50) belongs to the class of literature that it is a little difficult for sober-minded folks to read. It tells how various men proposed to an attractive girl.

In reviewing "*The History of Music to the Death of Schubert*," by John K. Paine, in the March issue of the WORLD TO-DAY, the publishers' name should have been given as Ginn & Co., and the price as \$2.

THE CALENDAR OF THE MONTH

United States

Administration.—March 16.—Public Printer Charles S. Stillings tendered his resignation to the President. It was accepted.

—March 17.—Rear-Admiral Charles S. Sperry to be commander-in-chief of the Atlantic battle-ship fleet on the retirement of Rear-Admiral Evans.

—March 31.—President Roosevelt sent to the Senate the name of David Jayne Hill to succeed Charlemagne Tower as ambassador to Germany; that of Spencer Eddy as minister to the Argentine Republic, and of Arthur M. Beaupre to the Netherlands and Luxemburg.

Airship.—March 12.—Alexander Graham Bell's new aeroplane, the Red Wing, sailed over Lake Keuka, near Hammondsport, New York, at a height of ten feet, for a distance of 319 feet, at the rate of twenty-five to thirty miles an hour.

Assassination.—March 23.—Durham White Stevens, formerly Secretary of the American Legation at Tokyo, later Foreign Japanese Adviser to the Emperor of Korea, assassinated by a Korean in San Francisco.

Capital Punishment.—March 11.—The Ohio senate passed Senator Schmidt's bill prohibiting capital punishment by a vote of twenty-two to nine.

Coinage.—March 16.—By a vote of 255 to five the House of Representatives passed the bill providing for the restoration of the motto, "In God We Trust" on gold and silver coins.

Congress.—March 19.—The House of Representatives passed a resolution reported by the committee on interstate and foreign commerce, calling on the President to inform the House by what authority of law he had exercised the functions of government on the canal zone since the expiration of the Fifty-eighth Congress.... The House passed the pension appropriation bill for \$150,869,000, the largest sum ever authorized for the purpose.

—March 20.—The Senate passed the ship subsidy bill paying to sixteen-knot vessels plying between this country and South America, the Philippines, Japan, China and Australasia \$4 per mile and to twelve-knot vessels \$2 per mile.

—March 22.—Congressman Charles E. Littlefield, of Maine, resigned to resume his law practice, to take effect in September.

—March 25.—President Roosevelt sent message to Congress urging amendment of the anti-trust law, a new employers' liability law, improvement of the nation's waterways, preparation for a revision of the tariff, establishment of postal savings banks, prohibition of child labor, etc.

—March 27.—The Senate passed the Aldrich

currency bill by a vote of forty-two to sixteen. [See Events.]

—April 2.—The Senate confirmed the nominations made by the President for ambassador to Germany and ministers to other countries. [See under Administration.]

—April 6.—The Sterling employers' liability bill passed by the House, three hundred members voting for it against one negative vote cast by Representative Littlefield of Maine.

—April 8.—The House passed resolutions inquiring as to investigation and prosecution of the paper trust by the government.

—April 9.—The Senate passed the employers' liability bill.

Crime.—March 18.—Harry Orchard, self-confessed slayer of Frank Steunenburg, former governor of Idaho, sentenced to death.

Deaths.—March 17.—William Pinckney Whyte, United States Senator from Maryland, aged eighty-four.

—March 20.—Charles H. Fowler, bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church, aged seventy-one.

—March 22.—William James Bryan, United States Senator from Florida, aged thirty-two.

—March 25.—Charles Cuthbert Hall, president of Union Theological Seminary, and Barrows professor of the University of Chicago, aged fifty-six.

—April 8.—Langdon Smith, journalist and war correspondent, aged fifty. . . Charles Quarles, constitutional lawyer.

Education.—March 13.—Decided that Andover Theological Seminary shall be removed to Cambridge, Massachusetts, next autumn, and affiliated with Harvard University.

—March 24.—The New York State Senate passed the bill providing for the equal pay of men and women schoolteachers in New York city.

—April 3.—Andrew Carnegie announced that he would give \$5,000,000 more to the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, in order that professors of state universities may be admitted as beneficiaries of the pension fund.

—April 9.—Mrs. Russell Sage gave \$250,000 to Princeton University for a freshmen's dormitory.

Floods.—March 19.—Enormous loss from floods in Pittsburg and western Pennsylvania. Industrial plants at a standstill, trains delayed and many families imprisoned in their homes.

Judiciary.—March 18.—Governor Hughes, of New York, appoints ex-Chief Judge Charles Andrews, of the Court of Appeals, as commissioner to hear charges brought against District Attorney Jerome, of New York county.

Labor.—March 12.—Cotton mills at Lowell,

Massachusetts, affecting twenty thousand operatives, posted notices of a ten per cent reduction in wages to begin March 30.

—March 13.—Similar notices posted at cotton mills at Manchester and Nashua, New Hampshire.

—March 23.—Chief Justice Clabaugh, of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia, rendered a decision making permanent the injunction against the American Federation of Labor, President Gompers and others, from boycotting the business of the Buck Stove & Range Company.

—March 27.—Federal troops sent to preserve order at the Treadwell mines in Alaska, where eight hundred miners are on strike.

—March 31.—The contracts between the bituminous coal operators and the United Mine Workers of America having expired, some two hundred and fifty thousand miners laid down their tools until a new agreement is signed.

—April 6.—Cotton mills in eastern Connecticut, employing about two thousand five hundred persons, resumed full time operations. Rubber companies also resumed. In Pittsburg six hundred additional men put to work when steel works resumed.

Municipal.—March 13.—John H. Sanderson, contractor; William P. Snyder, former auditor-general; W. L. Mathues, former state treasurer, and James M. Shumaker, former superintendent of public buildings and grounds, found guilty of defrauding the State of Pennsylvania in the furnishing of the new capitol.

—March 26.—The grand jury at San Francisco filed indictments against Patrick Calhoun, president of the United Railways; Tirey L. Ford, general counsel for same corporation, and Abraham Ruef. All three were charged with bribery.

Negro Soldiers.—March 11.—President Roosevelt sent a message to the Senate asking for the passage of a law permitting the restoration to the army of such negro soldiers as can prove they were innocent of participation in the Brownsville affair.

Prohibition.—March 11.—The general local option bill killed in the Maryland State House by a vote of fifty-six to forty-three....Constitutional prohibition defeated in the Mississippi State Senate by a vote of twenty-one to nineteen.

—April 7.—In eighty-four counties in Illinois, 1,053 townships voted to banish the saloon; 242 remain "wet." [See Events.]

—April 9.—The Alabama Supreme Court decided the general prohibition and 9 o'clock closing laws are constitutional.

Railroads.—March 23.—The Supreme Court of the United States rendered decision to the effect that transportation lines are private property, and their owners are entitled to legal protection in their rights. By this decision the railroads in Minnesota can not be compelled to suffer penalty for failure to submit to fixed rates. The recent rate laws were declared unconstitutional....The Supreme Court also affirmed the decision of the Circuit Court in a case where the Chicago Great Western Railroad was charged with violation of the law in fixing rates on live *stock*, the court asserting that common carriers

must be credited with honest intent unless proved to the contrary....The Supreme Court sustained the Southern Railway and Judge Pritchard, of the United States Circuit Court, in releasing Agent Wood, who had been arrested for selling railroad tickets for more than the maximum rate, fixed by the North Carolina statute at two and one-half cents a mile.

—March 27.—The Louisville & Nashville Railroad and the Atlantic Coast Line announced that the wages of employees on their systems will not be reduced.

—March 31.—The Illinois Central Railroad charged with defrauding the State of Illinois in a suit brought by Governor Deneen....Judge Smith McPherson, of the Federal Court, decided that he had full jurisdiction over the freight and two-cent passenger rates in Missouri.

—April 1.—The Southern Railway and allied lines made a two and one-half cent passenger rate in Tennessee for one year.

—April 8.—President Roosevelt ordered the enforcement of the law giving to all persons who purchase first-class tickets equal accommodations and service. Cases against certain Southern railways using Jim Crow cars had been investigated by Interstate Commerce Commission and railroads ordered to provide equal, if separate, accommodations, but they had not all obeyed law; hence President Roosevelt's order.

Rebates.—March 16.—The United States Supreme Court sustained the Elkins law in the rebate cases against the Armour Packing Company, Swift & Co., Morris & Co., and the Cudahy Packing Company, which had been convicted and fined \$15,000 each. The Chicago, Burlington & Quincy Railroad, which gave the rebates, was likewise fined.

—April 7.—The Great Northern Railway Company convicted in the United States Court of granting rebates to the American Sugar Refining Company and fined \$5,000.

—April 8.—Judge Knappen, in the United States District Court, sentenced the Stearns Salt & Lumber Co., of Ludington, Michigan, to pay a fine of \$20,000 for accepting rebates from the Pere Marquette Railroad.

Senatorial.—March 24.—The Maryland legislature voted that ex-Governor John Walter Smith should serve as United States Senator from Maryland for the unexpired term of the late Senator Whyte....Governor Proctor, of Vermont, appointed John W. Stewart, former governor of Vermont, United States Senator to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Senator Redfield Proctor.

—March 27.—Governor Broward, of Florida, appointed Hall Milton to succeed the late Senator Bryan.

Sunday Closing.—April 2.—The eleventh of the Sunday-closing trials in Chicago ended with a disagreement of the jury, eight voting to acquit.

Tobacco War.—March 24.—Because the state authorities of Kentucky fail to stop the outrages by night riders, an appeal to President Roosevelt was circulated for signatures.

Trusts.—April 7.—The special grand jury investigating the American Ice Company reported that it had not found sufficient evidence on which to indict the company or its president.

Philippines

Casualty.—March 11.—Fire destroyed two thousand native houses in Sampaloc, a suburb of Manila, and eighteen thousand persons were made homeless. No lives lost.

Cuba

Governors.—April 6.—Governor Magoon received the resignations, which he requested, of all the provincial governors, and appointed others in their places. Only one governor—Silva of Camaguey, resigned unwillingly. Silva announced that he considered himself dismissed "by omnipotent order."

Venezuela

Asphalt Claim.—March 14.—The Superior Court affirmed the decision of the lower court, imposing a fine of \$5,000,000 on the New York & Bermudez Asphalt Company for promoting the Matas rebellion.

American Claims.—April 2.—The official organ of President Castro, *El Constitucional*, stated, in reply to Secretary Root's reiterated demand for arbitration, that the cases in question can not be considered, and that the Venezuelan government desired the United States to consider the matter terminated.

—April 9.—Reported that the United States Government is preparing to make a joint naval and military demonstration in Venezuela.

Mexico

Earthquake.—March 27.—Heavy loss of life and destruction of property caused by earthquake shocks in the eastern part of the State of Guerrero; Chilapa reported in ruins; Costepec, Concepcion and Tetilla entirely destroyed.

Haiti

Reign of Terror.—March 15.—Eleven men of high standing in Port-au-Prince were taken out of their houses and summarily shot, under orders from General Villardoinhin Lecomte, the newly appointed minister of the interior. Many persons took refuge in the foreign consulates. Demand was made for immediate delivery to the Haytian government by France of all her refugees.

—March 16.—Official statement that the men executed were the chief conspirators in a revolutionary plot organized by General Antenor Firmin, now a refugee in the French consulate at Gonaives. Great Britain, France, Germany and the United States order warships to proceed to Port-au-Prince. President Nord Alexis consented to allow the refugees in the French legation to leave the island.

—March 17.—The British and German cruisers arrived with orders to protect foreign residents. President Alexis insisted on the council of ministers agreeing to permit the revolutionists now sheltered in the consulates to leave the island.

—March 29.—A fresh conspiracy discovered. The leader of the plot, General Larraque, former chief of cavalry, who had been arrested March 14 and released March 24, took refuge in the French legation with two other officers. The palace guards redoubled.

—March 21.—General Firmin and other revolutionists sailed on the French cruiser d'Estrées for St. Thomas.

British Empire

Australia.—March 19.—William Humble Ward, Earl of Dudley, appointed governor-general.

Casualty.—April 2.—Collision during naval maneuvers off the Isle of Wight caused the loss of thirty-four lives.

—April 6.—By the collapse of two old tenement houses in Oxford, eight persons were killed.

Death.—March 24.—Spencer Compton Cavendish, eighth Duke of Devonshire, a leader in English politics, aged seventy-five.

Drury Lane Theater.—March 25.—This historic playhouse destroyed by fire. It had been a dramatic center for 245 years.

Ireland.—March 30.—The House of Commons, after a debate on Home Rule for Ireland, adopted by a vote of 313 to 157 a resolution moved by John Redmond, that "a solution of the problem could only be attained by giving the Irish people legislative and executive control of all purely Irish affairs, subject to the supreme authority of the imperial parliament."

Florence Nightingale.—March 16.—The freedom of the city of London presented to Florence Nightingale. At her request the value of the gold casket in which the freedom is usually presented was given to the nurses' establishments that bear her name.

Prime Minister.—April 5.—King Edward accepted the resignation of Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman on account of ill-health. Herbert Henry Asquith, Chancellor of the Exchequer and acting premier, recommended to succeed Mr. Bannerman. The House of Commons adjourned till after the Easter vacation.

—April 8.—Herbert Henry Asquith appointed to the premiership and the post of first lord of the treasury by King Edward.

"Right-to-Work Bill."—March 13.—The Unemployed Workmen's bill of the Labor party defeated in the House of Commons by a majority of 149. A clause in the bill made it the duty of the local authorities to provide work for all unemployed persons or, failing this, to maintain them and their families. John Burns, the Labor leader in the House, asked the House to reject the bill.

Steamship Record.—March 12.—The Mauretania of the Cunard line broke the east-bound Atlantic record by covering the distance of 2,932 miles in five days and five minutes.

Swedenborg.—April 8.—The remains of Emanuel Swedenborg, noted mystic and author, exhumed in London, where they were buried in 1772, and transferred to the Swedish cruiser Fylgia for final burial in Sweden.

The Times.—March 16.—The litigation in regard to *The Times* ended by a court order sanctioning the formation of a private company to take over the newspaper. Sir Alfred Harmsworth (Lord Northcliffe) furnished the necessary capital; C. F. Moberly Bell to be managing director, and A. F. Walter, chief owner of *The Times*, to be chairman of the board of directors. The political policies and the editorial direction practically to remain unchanged.

France

Divorce.—March 24.—The Senate by an overwhelming majority concurred in the bill recently passed by the Chamber of Deputies, to convert automatically a decree of separation into a divorce at the end of three years when either party to the separation requests it.

Italy

Death.—March 11.—Edmondo De Amicis, writer of travels, aged sixty-two.

—March 16.—Clara Novello, singer, aged ninety.

Portugal

Elections.—April 5.—The elections resulted in a sweeping victory for the Monarchists; ninety-nine members of the Royalist affiliations returned to the chamber out of a total membership of 146. Rioting in Lisbon caused seven deaths. One hundred were wounded.

—April 6.—Lisbon practically an armed camp. Infantry and cavalry patrolling the streets, and guns posted in the principal squares. Republicans charged fraud in elections.

—April 8.—Wholesale arrests made in Lisbon. Two soldiers of the Municipal Guard shot while on sentry duty outside the captain's residence. The city remained quiet.

German Empire

Army Officers' Scandal.—March 17.—Prince Joachim Albrecht, of Prussia, dismissed from the army, ordered abroad and prohibited from wearing the German uniform.

Socialist Demonstration.—March 18.—A thousand Socialists, anarchists and trade-unionists paraded the streets of Berlin and placed wreaths on the graves of the five hundred victims of street fighting in the revolution of March, 1848. The day ended with several riots.

German South-West Africa

War.—March 19.—A battle between the German expeditionary forces and a body of Hot-

tentots in the Kalahari Desert resulted in the death of two officers and twelve privates and fifty-eight Hottentots. The Hottentot chief escaped.

Norway

Cabinet.—March 18.—The cabinet resigned on account of motions in the storting of lack of confidence.

Russian Empire

Assassination.—March 19.—Doctor Karavaiëff, the leader of the Group of Toil in the second duma, assassinated in Ekaterinoslav.

Prisons.—March 14.—M. Cutcheglovitoff, Minister of Justice, asked the duma for \$1,000,000 for the enlargement of the prisons, there having been an increase of 1.11 per cent in the number of prisoners since 1906. In February, 1908, there were 165,588 persons in prison.

Stoessel.—March 17.—The Emperor confirmed the death sentence passed on Lieutenant-General Stoessel and also the court's recommendation for commutation of the sentence to ten years' imprisonment in a fortress.

Chinese Empire

Japan.—March 11.—The government agreed to release the Japanese ship Tatsu Maru and its cargo of war munitions. An apology was handed to the Japanese minister for transmission to his government. An official statement made that "China, fearing Japan was seeking a pretext for trouble, apologized for hauling down the Japanese flag and proposed to release the ship, only recognizing *force majeure*."

—March 16.—The Tatsu Maru was released.

—April 6.—In Canton the boycott against the Japanese spreading rapidly.

Opium.—April 7.—The throne issued an edict appropriating \$72,000 for the creation of an opium board at Peking, to examine into the use of the drug and arraign those indulging in the practice.

The World To-Day

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Keep the Schoolhouse Open!

WE are face to face with two crises—the presidential campaign and vacation. At first sight it would seem as if the former were the more important. It is certainly important enough, but in the long perspective a vacation is almost terrifying to any one but an irrepressible optimist. For vacations help or hurt the citizens of to-morrow.

* * *

We do not take the matter very seriously.

Of course those of us who are sufficiently well-to-do send our children to camps and farms and grandparents and other substitutes for parents. But no matter how great the number of such fortunate persons is, it is all but infinitesimal in comparison with the army of those who can do little or nothing for their children and are not wise enough to do even the little they might.

Our society is so broken up into social compartments that she is a rare woman and he a rarer man who stops to think of the millions of boys and girls who during the summer months will have broken training and will be left practically to their own devices and the influence of those who know little and care less about the responsibilities of citizenship.

* * *

Why should our schools be closed during the summer?

Is it to give the teachers a vacation? They certainly need it, but could not substitutes be found?

Is it for the sake of economy? What worse economy is there than

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that will provide conditions which not only lead to the tremendous expense of courts and reformatories, but to the infinitely greater cost of lives that have been ruined through that mischief which Satan finds for the hand.

* * *

Boys and girls might be inspired by a twelve-months' application to books. There are other things than books in our education. The vacation school should teach something else than winter school.

Why not teach a trade or a play?

At any rate boys and girls ought to be kept off the street.

And it makes no difference whether the street is in the city or in a small town. A great many of us think that the small town street is demoralizing as the city street.

* * *

Notwithstanding all our talk about the new education, our schools still can be improved.

But the reform that is needed is not so much in the curriculum as in the conception of the very purpose of school. It is all very well to discuss "Frills" and the "Three R's," but let us open our eyes to something more fundamental. The welfare of the community demands training in self-restraint and plain decency.

* * *

When that happy day for which we look dawns and we all come to our senses, we shall see that the duty of the State is not to teach boys and girls for nine months in the year and then turn them loose for three months; we shall see to it that if fathers and mothers forsake their children then the State shall take them up—into schools, not jails.

If it is the duty of the school to keep growing children from bad influences in the winter, it is even more its duty to keep children from evil in the summer.

The closed schoolhouse is a standing monument to an imperfect education. It is a guidepost to crime.

EVENTS OF THE MONTH

Foreign Affairs

One of the opportunities for trouble constantly open to the European powers has been a dreaded monopoly of the Baltic and North Seas by one or more of the nations having territory bordering thereon. It was particularly feared during the last months, that Germany and Denmark had made an alliance with this object in view. By the signing of two agreements simultaneously on April 23, at Berlin and St. Petersburg, these fears are set at rest. The North Sea treaty was signed by the Secretary of Foreign Affairs for Germany, the British and French ambassadors, and the ministers to Germany, of Denmark, Holland and Sweden. The Convention relating to the Baltic Sea was signed by the representatives of Russia, Germany, Sweden and Denmark. In both agreements the signatories engage to make no changes in ownership of their respective territorial possessions bordering on these seas. Any event threatening to disturb the *status quo* shall be cause for conference regarding the concerted action to be taken for its preservation.

Since our last issue the reorganization of the British cabinet has taken place. It involved few changes and these were mainly transpositions. David Lloyd-George is promoted to the place of Chancellor of the Exchequer and Lord Tweedmouth becomes President of the Council. Reginald McKenna is transferred to the office of First Lord of the Admiralty, while Walter Runciman succeeds him in the presidency of the board of education. Earl Crewe takes the place of Lord Elgin as Secretary of State for the Colonies, and Winston Spencer Churchill that of Mr. Lloyd-George as president of the board

of trade. John Morley remains Secretary of State for India, but in order to do so, must for health reasons, give up work in the House of Commons and will therefore be made a peer. As his democratic tendencies are well known, this move has excited some surprise, but it was a choice between that and giving up the office where he has proved himself valuable. Sir Edward Grey, Messrs. Birrell, Gladstone, Burns and others retain their former offices. These cabinet changes involve four by-elections. Of these, Mr. Churchill's was lost for the government, the northwest division of Manchester returning his opponent, Mr. Joynson-Hicks, Conservative, by a majority of 1,019. The Liberals acknowledge that this is a serious blow to their cause. Radicals assert that it has a like effect on free trade. After a sharp contest Mr. Churchill was successful in winning the Dundee seat. The Liberal majority, however, was reduced almost half. Likewise, another by-election, that at Wolverhampton, where in the last election Sir Henry Fowler had a plurality of 2,865, was held for the Liberals by a majority of only eight. It is undeniable that the government has lost heavily of late in the support of the people. For this various reasons are assigned: opposition to the licensing bill and failure to carry through measures promised at the general election.

Both from without and within the British are having trouble in India. A plot among the natives in Bengal has been discovered and over thirty persons were arrested. A large number of bombs were also seized. Examination of those arrested revealed plans to kill General Kitchener, the commander-in-chief of the

British army in India, and other high officials. Prominent Bengalese appear to be implicated. Serious raids have been made by Afghans across the northwestern border in the vicinity of Khyber Pass. Arms and ammunition have been smuggled in through Persian Baluchistan and large forces of natives assembled within British territory. Most disturbing fact of all is the indifference of the Ameer of Afghanistan, who has professed to be in friendly alliance with Great Britain. On May 2 between thirteen thousand and twenty thousand Afghans attacked the Michnikandach blockhouse and caravansary, which are held by a detachment of the Khyber rifles. The garrison defeated the attempt. Major-General Sir James Willcocks, who had gone to the Baru Valley to secure obedience and order from the Zakkahs tribesmen, immediately went to Landi Kotal at the Afghan end of the Khyber Pass with cavalry and infantry troops. The Afghans were driven back with a loss to the British of seven men killed and forty-seven wounded. An effort was made by the Mollahs — religious dignitaries — who led the Afghans, to raise the fiery cross and rouse Mohammedan fanaticism, but without effect. No support was given by the Mohammedans or by other tribesmen, so that there is no reason to fear any general uprising among the natives of India.

When China was resisting the demands of Japan in regard to the seizure of the steamer Tatsu Maru, she threatened that if compelled to concede them, she would institute a boycott against Japanese commerce. This threat is now being fulfilled. Japanese steamships are leaving the ports of Foochow, Amoy, Swatow, Hongkong, and even Manila, Melbourne and New York without any invoices of Chinese goods. Merchants at Hankow and interior towns are refusing to accept the notes of the Yokohama Specie Bank. Word comes from Canton that the determination is not to lift the boycott until the loss to Japanese commerce reaches \$150,000,000. The self-government societies are managing this retaliative movement, and the leader of the one at Canton asserts that Japan

“will learn to her cost” that she made a bad mistake when “by main force she compelled China to recede from her righteous position regarding the Tatsu Maru.”

It will be interesting to observe the effect this boycott has upon the development of Asiatic politics. It will not be difficult for the astute Japanese to involve China in some disturbance which would serve as a pretext for armed interference. On the other hand, Japan is likely to move cautiously. Korea is furnishing difficulties enough for her just at present, while the financial situation of the empire is such as to arouse serious anxiety at home. As we have previously insisted, the real significance of the action of China is in its testifying to the new national spirit. Just how far this will involve hostility to other nations can not yet be foreseen. But it can hardly be questioned that the “open door,” which was so seriously threatened, is likely to be of more real commercial importance. It is greatly to be regretted that the United States does not more clearly see what opportunity the boycott offers for an extension of American trade. Unfortunately, American exporters are a generation behind those of Europe in their capacity to adjust themselves to the peculiar conditions of trade outside of America.

This Chinese-Japanese affair is already having its influence upon American plans. Our minister to China, Mr. Rockwell, advises our government that it would be ill advised to send the fleet to China on its way around the world. There was danger lest its presence should give rise to two opposite suspicions: one that the United States was ready to coöperate with China, or at least to express its approval of the advance of Japan into Manchuria; and the other that the presence of the fleet would be understood as an attempt on the part of America to coöperate with Japan in stopping the boycott. Because of this danger the fleet will now be divided into two squadrons and appear in Chinese and Japanese waters practically simultaneously. Chinese public opinion is already having its influence in international affairs.

CONVENTION HISTS

Visitors to Chicago, warning: Don't provide yourselves with hats sizes too large. They may blow off. *Bradley, in the Chicago Daily News*

bility is that Italy had good claims for her extreme action. Other nations have a strong financial grip upon Turkish commerce and mineral resources, and, particularly in the case of Great Britain and France, are able to get results by more indirect methods. Germany has of late years played the rôle of champion of Turkish interests and has been granted many privileges on that account. But the whole situation is anomalous, and if the European powers were not so much afraid of each other, might well give rise to serious difficulties.

Turkish affairs have also been more or less in evidence because of the persistent troubles in Macedonia. Russia, having

The Problems of Border States rejected the proposal of Great Britain to provide certain administrative reforms in Macedonia, has made certain counter proposals relative to Macedonian finances. Thus far nothing definite has resulted. The chief point at issue is the deficit arising from the maintenance of troops which are optimistically supposed to maintain order in Macedonia. The British government intends to force the Porte to care for this deficit by withdrawing its conditional consent to the increase in customs, which it was hoped would

provide the Porte with the necessary means for Macedonian administration. The relations of Russia and Great Britain relative to Turkey are to some extent complicated by the action of Russia in a raid into Persian territory. The exact facts of the case are not clear, but it would seem as if a considerable Russian force had attacked the Kurds and had pursued them into Persian territory with considerable loss to both parties. According to the agreement with Great Britain, Russia is to maintain order along the northern Persian frontier. It remains to be seen whether this agreement will be held by Great Britain to cover actual invasion of Persian territory. More than that, the German interests in Persia are now becoming considerable, and it would not be surprising if in the near future the Persian question would be quite as prominent as that of Turkey now is in European politics.

On the eighty-second anniversary of the establishment of Constitutional govern-

Portugal and its New King

ment in Portugal, the Cortes was reopened by King Manuel. On his way to the building he was closely guarded by soldiers. The measures recommended for enactment are the revision of the Constitution and the reform of the electoral system. The king has been anxious to restore to the national treasury the money withdrawn from it by his father, and for this purpose desired a thorough investigation, but this plan is not acceptable to the political leaders. It is asserted by the opposition party that the purposes for which the money was used would thus be revealed and it would be shown that the royal family received for private expenses less than half of the \$1,500,000, the leaders of the rotative parties using the balance. The value of the crown jewels taken by King Carlos, with the approval of the government, to pay some of his debts, will be refunded by King Manuel from his own personal fortune. On May 6, the king took the oath to support the Constitution and was proclaimed King of Portugal and the Portuguese possessions. There was no coronation ceremony, as the crown is never worn by Portugal's ruler, it being dedicated to the patron saint of the country.

Mr. Haywood withdrew, and at the time of writing Mr. Debs' nomination seems probable.

The conference summoned by President Roosevelt in the White House in Washington May 13, 14 and 15, **The White House Conference** is likely to prove a matter of unusual influence in the development of the country. Among those who were invited were members of the Cabinet, judges of the Supreme Court of the United States, governors of all the States of the Union, and, in addition, Andrew Carnegie, W. J. Bryan, James J. Hill, Seth Low, and John Mitchell. There were present also a number of experts on the natural resources of the country, who presented papers. As the conference is in session at the time we go to press, it is impossible for us to state the result of the meeting, but we sincerely hope that there will be some definite plan determined upon which will direct legislation for the next generation.

The deadlock into which Congress seems to have fallen relative to currency reform seems in a fair way to be broken. The Aldrich Bill, **The Currency Reform** after having been modified and remodified and then again remodified, has finally disappeared from legislative possibilities. In its place came the so-called Vreeland Bill. All that it contains of its predecessor is a provision for the payment of interest on government deposits in national banks. The new bill provided for the formation of a clearing house association to be composed of not less than ten national banks, with an aggregate capital and surplus of not less than \$5,000,000. Emergency currency could be based on clearing house securities, including commercial paper, subject to a tax of four per cent the first month and one per cent additional until ten per cent was reached. The bill also provided for a currency commission composed of six members from each house. This bill met with disapproval in the house currency committee, Mr. Fowler, chairman of that committee, holding strenuously to the belief that at the present time the only need is for the appointment of a currency commission. Speaker Cannon favored the Vreeland Bill, and on May 6 the Republicans of the House held a conference at which a resolution was passed which, without mentioning the Vreeland Bill, approved through clearing house association, securities including commercial paper, as a safe asset for emergency currency. At the time of writing there is every evidence that the bill will be passed embodying the essential points of the Vreeland Bill. In any case, Congress has learned the need of caution in currency legislation, and, it is to be hoped, the country is to be relieved at least to some degree from the danger of the recurrence of the currency panic of last October.

Evidently Congress is inclined to take the President's declination of a third term seriously, for it has chosen **Two New Battle-ships** to defeat him in no less a matter than his call for four battle-ships. The House, by a vote of 199 to eighty-three, refused to sanction the call, but did appropriate funds for two. The agitation for an increased navy

THE HOTEL FIRE AT FORT WAYNE, INDIANA

Twelve persons lost their lives in this disaster.
This photograph was taken at sunrise

The first of May inaugurated in many localities the banishment of the saloons. In

May 1 and the saloons Massachusetts, by changes in six cities and thirty-six towns, 210 licensed places went out of business. Among these are three of the largest manufacturing cities of the state, where the doing away of the liquor traffic means inestimable benefit to business as well as individuals. Worcester, with a population of over one hundred and thirty thousand, is the largest municipality in the country under a no-license régime. A year ago the wets had a majority of 6,722. At this year's elections the drys were ahead by 18,085 votes. In Vermont only twenty-seven cities and towns legalize the sale of liquor as compared with ninety-two five years ago. Druggists' licenses are abolished in New Hampshire. In Illinois, as already reported in these columns, and Nebraska, the tide has gone in the same direction. Fourteen towns in the latter state adopted no-license. Even in Chicago there are, since May 1, 125 less saloons than last year. An interesting exhibit of the results of prohibition in Atlanta, Georgia, has recently been published. The total number of arrests for the first quarter of 1908 were 2,211, whereas in the same months of 1907 they were 4,386. The "drunk and disorderlies" arrested this year numbered 326 as compared with 1,400 last year. Prohibition certainly saves municipal criminal expenses, a fact that should be

remembered in considering the loss of revenue from license fees.

A lamentable loss of property was occasioned by a disastrous fire in Chelsea, one of Boston's important suburbs, on April 12. A fierce northwest gale, blowing at the rate of forty-five miles an hour, prevented the efforts of the firemen to check the progress of the flames. The area over which they raged is a mile and a half long and half a mile wide at its broadest part. The city hall, the public library, two hospitals, thirteen churches, five schoolhouses, twenty business blocks and nearly a score of factories were destroyed. The total loss is estimated as between \$7,500,000 and \$10,000,000. Ten thousand people were made homeless. It was found necessary to call out the militia to help in preserving order. Fortunately no lives were lost. The number of heavy losses by fire of late years has led to widespread comment on the unwisdom shown in not using fireproof construction. It is claimed that at least seventy-five per cent of the annual losses by fire in the United States are preventable. The *Wall Street Journal* states that in the past three years the losses in this country and Canada aggregated \$850,000,000 — a sum "nearly equal to the total capital stock, paid in, of the national banks of the United States!"

One of the most terrible storms of modern history swept across the States of Texas, Oklahoma, Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, Tennessee, Alabama, and Georgia. Mississippi was the greatest sufferer. The total number of those who were killed in the storm was approximately four hundred. Forty-six towns were more or less damaged. The cyclone was particularly fatal among the negroes, whose frail houses were almost instantly ruined. The federal government immediately undertook the work of relief, Congress appropriating \$250,000. Another tornado swept over the southern part of Nebraska May 12, killing fourteen persons and damaging much property. At Fort Crook the village was destroyed and the army post damaged to the amount of \$100,000.

The Drama

The season has practically closed, but the month has been remarkably active in the trying-out process of new material intended for next autumn. This custom of a spring premier with a brief run has been the means of dispelling much anxiety in the minds of players over the prospects of the new season. It also affords the playwright ample time for whipping his vehicle into perfect shape. The result is a well-organized attack on the metropolis in the early autumn. Viola Allen has made a preliminary skirmish with Henri Bernstein's "Illusions." Its success in Paris will undoubtedly be duplicated in America. It is a tender and beautiful exposition of the awakening of mother-love in a frivolous woman, with the attendant eclipse of mere worldly joys and excitements. Mary Mannering has discovered an admirable and interesting vehicle in "Memory and To-Morrow," by the hitherto unknown Philip Tilton. It is a social drama, dealing with the uncovering of a woman's unchaste past, yet built effectively with a fine purpose, disclosing the ultimate redemption of the sinner through another's love. Another work by Dr. Isaac Landmann treating of the rescue of the race, and called "Redemption," fails to hit the mark and becomes solely a preachment, rather than a play, by virtue of a lack of romance, of character color, and of pronounced emotion. A playwright may preach effectually, but his purpose must necessarily be concealed behind a cloak of worldly attractiveness. To quote Augustus Thomas: the successful playwright grabs the most hardened sinner by the throat with an iron hand, but in a velvet glove. "The Call of the North," a dramatization of Stewart White's "Conjurer's House," has been found in a few performances by Robert Edson to be a striking, splendid, gripping romance of the wilds. It has been reluctantly laid away for a few months.

Four regular dramatic productions have been made, with the intention of running through the summer season should the attendance warrant it. The most important of these is Paul Kester's drama-

tization of Cervantes' "Don Quixote," presented with scenic splendor by E. H. Sothorn. A small fortune has been expended in preparation. Carloads of scenery are on view. Everything possible in the way of material effect is combined, yet wholly without spiritual significance. To quote a discriminating and conscientious critic: "It begins with nothing, and ends with nothing. A dramatist that could see the dry bones of Don Quixote, as in this play, is a genius." He may be clever enough to hoodwink the player and the producer, but he can not hypnotize the public with the dry bones of anybody. On the other hand, "Papa Lebounard," by Jean Aicard, is a masterpiece in technical skill. It stirs the imagination and reaches the heart. Its setting is a mere secondary concomitant to help the mind's eye build the picture. In this vehicle, Henry E. Dixey, always an admirable character actor, has reached the highest achievement in his career. A second company has been organized to present on the road "Paid in Full," Eugene Walter's brilliant work. It is a stern, deep, intense study of a man's depravity and a woman's tragic self-sacrifice, and these two significant rôles are played by Helen Ware and Guy Bates Post with consummate skill, and an unerring sense of dramatic proportion. Edward Vroom, an actor of artificial methods but earnest purpose, made an initial attempt as a playwright in "The Luck of MacGregor," a romantic drama of the Revolution. Conventional to a degree, crude in construction, the play is hopeless. It has been proved again that a good actor is always a poor dramatist.

Donald Robertson's little art theater has closed its first season. After a plucky and hard struggle against adverse circumstances, against skepticism, against a low order of public taste, it still lives. Fifteen sterling plays, borrowed from the workshops of masterly dramatists, have been produced. They represent the best in the world's work. Two performances a week have been given in a music hall, to small but appreciative audiences by a sincere and conscientious little band of pio-

gratitude to this country for it." He recognized that immigration was largely the cause of the church's growth and expansion. Its failure to hold thousands who had belonged to it was also acknowledged by one of the preachers at the services. On the other hand, the Catholic Church has done efficient work in this country in enforcing law and order among newly arrived immigrants.

The Young Men's Christian Association of Chicago has observed its golden

A Golden Jubilee

jubilee with a celebration lasting seventeen days. It began with a week of religious services held in every section of the city. In its various branches, in railroad departments, schools, colleges, factories, shops, institutions and churches, there were 130 such gatherings. The social side of the association was next emphasized, one day being given to an exhibition of the physical work. A citizens' banquet closed the celebration, at which some eight hundred persons were present. At the speakers' table were Governor Deneen, President Woodrow Wilson of Princeton University, James G. Cannon, chairman of the New York clearing-house committee, Henry B. Macfarland, president of the commissioners of the District of Columbia, and others. A marked feature of the celebration was the endeavor to raise a million-dollar fund for the work of the association. The total reached thus far is \$305,000, John G. Shedd heading the list with \$100,000.

It is now a few years since Mr. Alleyne Ireland went to the Far East as a commissioner of the University of Chicago to make investigation in the field of colonial administration. Now comes the further statement that the same institution is to send out one of its staff, Professor E. D. Burton, the distinguished New Testament scholar, on an even more important errand. Professor Burton is to make a prolonged study of the general effect of Christian missions upon the eastern nations. He will report upon the influence of evangelism, churches, schools, medical work, and all other branches of

A Commission on Missions

aggressive Christian activity. While the scope of his investigation includes the Far East in general he will devote more time to China than to any other country. The importance of such an investigation is evident. On the basis of it will doubtless be built in no small degree conclusions which are likely to be directive in future missionary policies.

Another voice has been added to that of Count Tolstoi in arraignment of the

An Ecclesiastical Protest in Russia

bondage and deadness of the Russian Church. Father Petroff, formerly professor of theology in the Polytechnic Institute, has been a popular preacher, and also a member of the douma. But he has brought upon himself the condemnation of his ecclesiastical superiors for the freedom and frankness of his utterances and has suffered penance in a monastery. This has in no way quenched his fervor. He has forwarded to the Metropolitan Archbishop of St. Petersburg a religious protest, remarkable in character, which has been published in the London *Contemporary Review*. In it he says that "the nation, the great Russian nation, lies like the traveler in the gospel parable of the Good Samaritan — robbed, beaten, blood-stained; and the clergy, the external shepherds of the Church, pass by; they are hurrying forward to the service of the ruling and the possessing classes." . . . "What a vast force would the whole Church not exercise if the genuine Church were to utter a genuine ecclesiastical word to the authorities, to the nation, to the revolutionists and reactionaries, to the country at large." He insists that the righting of social wrongs is the business of the clergy. "I believe," he says, "in one holy, apostolic church, but the soulless organization of Pobedonostseff in the guise of Orthodoxy, I reprobate with all my understanding and with all the vigor of my forces. I believe that Christ's truth will overmaster everything, and that both the Russian Church and the Russian nation will become free, and establish in their fatherland the kingdom of God. This I believe, and therefore in the near future I expect the resurrection of Russia and the life of the new, the coming world. Amen. So be it."

strike to stake out claims. Some rich deposits of gold have been found in this new camp, and about two hundred people planned to spend the winter there. The results of the winter's prospecting and next summer's sluicing will do much to determine the fate of the camp.

one hundred feet wide. This material immediately overlies the bed-rock, and the gold in it is so plentiful that it can be seen by the unaided eye.

From one claim on this old beach line over \$300,000 was taken in a single month. A single clean-up on August 17, 1907, made after three days of sluicing, amounted to \$40,000. The gold occurs as small nuggets, in grains, as flakes and as dust. The coarser gold is caught in the riffles of the sluice-boxes, and most of the fine dust amalgamates with the quick-silver which is on metal plates in the bottom of certain of the lower boxes. At several points along this third beach, the old dumps are being reworked, and the men thus engaged are making better than good wages.

In the Pacific-coast provinces of Alaska, the interest is chiefly in the copper and coal resources. An exception must be made in the case of the Treadwell Mine, near Juneau, where the steady stamping of large quantities of low-grade gold ore continues to pay good dividends. The copper interests are centered about Ketchikan, Copper River and Prince William Sound. Active mining and smelting are going on in the Ketchikan district, and large quantities of ore are being shipped from Prince William Sound. The Copper River district awaits the building of a railroad.

As yet the valuable coal fields in the coastal province of Alaska have been little developed. They also await the building of railroads. The Controller Bay field is the most accessible of the high-grade coal fields, and active work is now being done on the railroad connecting that field with the coast. This railroad will cross the Copper River delta to the west of the coal field and reach tidewater at Cordova on Prince William Sound. The main line of the road will follow the Copper River Valley to the rich ore deposits in the upper portion of that basin.

This railroad will make it possible to develop many properties in the Copper River district that thus far have remained untouched, and may also be expected to lead to the erection of a smelter on the shores of Prince William Sound, where the ores shipped by rail or water and the coal shipped from the Controller Bay field may be brought together. The

A MINER WASHING OUT GOLD

Fairbanks, the largest gold camp of the interior of Alaska, is located in the midst of rich placer ground and will long continue to be a great gold producer. The annual production from this camp is about \$10,000,000. At Nome, the chief interest is now in the third beach line. There the claims are distributed among a great many owners, and active work is in progress on almost every claim. The work consists of sinking through about sixty-five feet of ancient shore gravel to bed-rock, thawing the frozen gravel by means of steam points, hoisting the gravel to the surface, and passing it through the sluice-boxes. The pay streak at this place is of sand and gravel about eighteen inches thick and limited to a zone about

THE METROPOLIS OF NOME, THE BASE OF SUPPLY FOR THE MINING CAMPS

copper ores from Latouche and Knight's Island, in Prince William Sound, must now be shipped either to southeastern Alaska to the Hadley smelter or to the Tacoma smelters. The Alaska Central Railroad, which has Seward as its ocean terminus, is headed toward the Matanuska coal field, and will in time lead to

the development of that field and bring large quantities of high-grade coal into the Alaskan and other Pacific-coast markets as far south as San Francisco.

The annual production of gold in Alaska during the last two years has been about \$22,000,000. Of that amount nearly \$18,000,000 has, each year, come from the placers. Over \$1,000,000 worth of copper was produced last year and over \$100,000 worth of silver. In addition to the mineral resources, the fisheries are coming to be of great importance. Over \$10,000,000 worth of salmon is canned each year. Fifteen thousand fur seals may, under contract with the government, be taken, and there is little doubt that the full number is usually secured. Many of the small Alaskan islands have been taken as fox-ranches, and from these ranches hundreds of blue, red and white fox skins are secured each year.

In 1867 the United States purchased the district of Alaska from Russia for \$7,200,000. The land thus purchased includes 586,401 square miles, or 375,296,640 acres. The purchase price amounted to about two cents an acre.

It is difficult to appreciate the dimen-

sions of this land from figures or on a general map of North America, but if the district of Alaska is drawn on the same scale as a map of the United States, and superimposed on the latter, a more definite conception of the dimensions may be secured. In the latitude of Los Angeles, the Alaskan possessions would stretch from the Atlantic to the Pacific; the southernmost island in the Aleutian Chain would rest in part in Mexico, while the northern border of Alaska would reach to the Canadian boundary line. Thus placed, the territory of Alaska is seen to equal a large portion of the upper Mississippi Valley, while the island possessions in southeastern Alaska and far to the westward cover considerable additional territory.

If the district of Alaska be shifted in longitude, but held to its appropriate position in latitude, and superimposed on northern Europe, it may be so placed as to cover a large portion of northwestern Russia, all of Finland and Lapland, most of Sweden and a portion of Norway. The southeastern panhandle would rest over the central portion of European Russia, while the Alaskan Peninsula and the islands to the westward would lie in part over Germany, Holland, England, and reach even to Ireland. From this transfer of Alaska, it may be noted that many of the islands to the westward are south of Edinburgh, some are as far south as London and Dublin; that the coastal province bordering the Gulf of Alaska is in about the same latitude as Christiania and Stockholm; that St. Petersburg and the dense population surrounding that metropolis are as far north as Valdez, and that the Yukon basin is in the same latitude as Finland and northern Sweden.

The populations of those portions of Europe that correspond in latitude and dimensions to the Alaskan district amount to several millions of people, while in Alaska there is to-day a population of but sixty thousand to seventy thousand. The climatic conditions in Alaska and northwestern Europe are strikingly different, and it must not be inferred that Alaska can ever support so large a population as an equal territory in northwestern Europe. It may, however, be pointed out that much of the Alaskan territory inhabited now by only a few native tribes

SITKA AND THE ADJACENT ISLANDS

These beautiful mountainous islands make the inland passage a rival of the fjords of Norway

cabbages and potatoes. In the Yukon basin the gardens are commonly placed on south-facing slopes so that the rays from the sun may strike the garden land at a high angle.

From the geographical standpoint, Alaska may be compared advantageously with the western portion of the United States and British Columbia. Bordering the Pacific are the magnificent Coast Ranges, with many peaks rising seven thousand and eight thousand feet, and a few to elevations from sixteen to eighteen thousand feet. This system of mountains is continued far to the westward and

thence southwestward where it forms the backbone of the Alaskan Peninsula. The western termination of this mountain belt is in a chain of volcanic islands, the westernmost of which is nearer to Japan than San Francisco. In the Alaskan Range is Mount McKinley, twenty thousand three hundred feet, the highest mountain in North America. This great peak rises conspicuously from the plains to the northwestward in the valley of the Kuskokwim, and may be seen from the upper portion of Cook Inlet or from outlook points on the mountains of the Kenai Peninsula.

Fairweather Range, the snows accumulate, glaciers form, and these glaciers descend nearly or quite to tidewaters. On the southern slopes of Mount St. Elias the valley glaciers descend, and at the base of the mountains blend into one great ice-sheet known as the Malespina Glacier. This, the largest Piedmont glacier in the world, borders the coast for about eighty miles. The ice-sheet at places reaches to the ocean and steep cliffs of ice border the water-front. At other places, forests clothe the glacier, and give it the appearance of land.

To the westward from Cape Hinchinbrook, the coastwise journey leads one into Prince William Sound. Again we are in the midst of mountains where beautiful *fjords* make it possible to advance far inland. It is the southeastern Alaskan type of country over again. The mountains bordering the great *fjords* rise to elevations of three thousand and four thousand feet, while in the distance the summits of the Chugach Range reach elevations of six thousand and eight thousand feet. From the catchment basins among these mountains, other glaciers descend to tidal waters. At the head of the Sound, after steaming up one of the most beautiful *fjords* in Alaska, we reached the little village of Valdez. This village is situated on a plain made of material washed out from the glacier just above town, and the floods from this glacier endanger portions of the village each season.

Still farther to the westward, the mountain chains of the coast continue to be within view from the vessel. The Chugach Range follows out the Kenai Peninsula and into Kodiak Island. On the west of Cook Inlet is the Alaskan Range, with its numerous volcanic peaks, many of which are yet active.

The Yukon Basin

The interior of Alaska presents a very different aspect from that of the coastal province. It is a plateau region which has been much dissected by running water. From elevated positions in this interior region, the hill-tops come to a conspicuously even level and represent the ancient plateau into which the great valleys of the Yukon, the Tanana, the Kuskokwim, the Koyukuk and the Porcu-

pine have been cut. In the cutting of these great valleys, in the working over the material of these interior lands, the streams gathered and concentrated the gold which has drawn so many thousands of people into Alaska.

The famous Klondike region is relatively near the headwaters of the Yukon drainage system; Eagle and Circle adjoin that river; Fairbanks is located in the basin of the Tanana River, and the latest find in the Innoka region is near the headwaters of a tributary to the lower Yukon. Lesser finds of gold have been made in almost every valley associated with this interior country.

Running in an east-west direction, and north of the Yukon River, are the Rocky Mountains of Alaska. These ranges of mountains reach elevations from six thousand to eight thousand feet above sea-level, are snow-capped, and among them there are numerous small glaciers. Northward from the Rocky Mountains an extensive plain, covered by a thick moss or tundra growth, extends to the Arctic Ocean.

The four great geographic provinces of Alaska, namely, (1) the mountainous province bordering the Pacific Coast, (2) the interior plateau of the Yukon basin, (3) the Rocky Mountain belt, and (4) the Arctic slope, correspond to the great geographic provinces of British Columbia and the western half of the United States. The Pacific Coast mountains are represented in the states by the mountains of Washington, Oregon and California; the Yukon plateau by the plateau of Utah and Nevada, and the Rocky Mountain belt of Alaska is continuous through British Columbia with the Rocky Mountains of Montana, Wyoming and Colorado. The Arctic slope is comparable to the plain stretching eastward from the Rocky Mountains in British Columbia and in the western states.

Climatic Conditions

The great geographic provinces of Alaska define also the great climatic provinces. In the Pacific-coast province the climatic conditions are modified by the proximity of the great ocean and especially by the ocean currents which reach the Gulf of Alaska from the more southern waters of the Pacific. As the Japan

SHOWING RELATIVE SIZE OF ALASKA AND THE
UNITED STATES

current approaches the western border of North America, a portion turns southward and another portion turns northward and follows the coast line of Alaska.

The southwest winds from the Pacific Ocean are forced to give up their moisture on the windward slopes of the mountains, and therefore this province receives a heavy precipitation. At Sitka the annual precipitation is about one hundred inches; at Juneau about ninety-five inches; on the slopes of the Fairweather and St. Elias Ranges the precipitation approaches nearly to two hundred inches. At Nuchek, a point just north of Cape Hinchinbrook, a measured precipitation of one hundred and ninety inches has been recorded. This heavy rainfall and snowfall accounts for the luxuriant forests that clothe the lower ranges and adequately explains the presence of the glaciers in this portion of Alaska.

In this rainy coastal belt, the number of sunshiny days per month averages from fourteen to sixteen, but throughout the summer months, from May to September, the average number of such days is much higher. The extreme southwestern portion of this province, the Alaskan Peninsula and the Aleutian Islands, receives less rainfall than that to the east. In the Cook Inlet region, which is in part cut off from the sea breezes, the amount of precipitation drops at places to fourteen inches per year. In this region the rainfall comes as gentle showers and is not a serious interference to mining or agricultural work.

The temperature at sea-level in this coastal province varies from about zero

to eighty or ninety degrees. Many portions of this region seldom have a minimum temperature much below zero Fahrenheit. In southeastern Alaska the annual range of temperature runs from an average minimum in January of two degrees below zero to an average maximum in July of eighty-six degrees.

The interior plateau province is a semi-arid country, for the winds having been forced to give up their moisture on the Pacific Coast slope descend into the interior in a relatively dry condition. That portion of the interior bordering the Bering Sea receives some moisture from that direction, but the winds on which it is borne usually distribute it before they have advanced far into the Yukon basin. Thus the rainfall grades from an annual fall of fifteen to twenty inches in the lower Yukon country to an annual fall of from ten to twelve inches at Eagle. This land is for the most part covered with grasses and shrubs. The only portions supporting trees are those immediately adjoining the great rivers. Thus narrow belts of forest border the Yukon, the Tanana and the Kuskokwim.

The interior province suffers extreme changes in temperature, ranging from a recorded minimum of minus sixty degrees Fahrenheit to an authentic maximum of ninety-four degrees. The winter temperature averages from five to ten degrees, while during the summer months the average temperature is between fifty and sixty degrees. During the dark winter months this interior region is covered with from two to three feet of snow, the rivers are frozen, and there is very little activity except in underground mining operations.

During the summer most of the snow disappears, the rivers are open to navigation, and prospectors and miners are putting in long days at hard work. The ground in the Yukon basin never thaws much more than eighteen inches below the surface. In all mining work it is necessary to thaw the gravel or to mine each day just the amount that the heat from the sun has loosened up. The ice in the Yukon River begins to break in May, and the river freezes early in November. During the summer months when the sun shines most of the twenty-four hours of each day, the vegetation becomes luxu-

riant, and in the moist tundra lands bordering the valleys, wild flowers and mosquitoes are in great profusion. The days are frequently uncomfortably warm, and traveling is often postponed until the night hours.

The Rocky Mountain province, owing to its greater altitude, receives additional precipitation, and in that area the snowfalls are sufficient to give rise to some smaller glaciers. Very few recorded data are available regarding the temperature conditions in this province, but the region may be thought of as one of extreme cold, especially during the winter months.

The Arctic slope receives so little precipitation that it may be classed as a semi-desert. The annual precipitation there is less than ten inches, and at points where the record has been kept, less than eight inches have been noted.

The temperature conditions in this extreme northern province have been somewhat faithfully recorded at Point Barrow. At that point, the extreme northernmost point of Alaska, the winter temperature has been known to fall to fifty-five degrees below zero, while the summer maximum is sixty-five degrees. The length of the growing season, or the period from the last killing frost in the spring to the first killing frost in the fall varies from 150 days on the Pacific Coast to about ninety days in the interior, and to an uncertain minimum farther north so short that no agricultural work is practicable.

The Native People of Alaska

In southeastern Alaska the Indians are grouped in small villages, among which Metlakatla, Kake, Kilisnoo and Sitka are the most populous. The natives are now largely engaged during the summer season in work associated with the salmon canneries or the oil and guano factories. They still do some logging, getting out and forming great rafts which I know have sold from \$500 to \$800 each. This money is distributed among the men who have assisted in the work, and the distribution results in a general good time about the village and a very considerable income to the little storekeeper who has located in or near the village. During the winter they still do some hunting, though the income received from work associated with the white man's industries has made

them less dependent upon those primitive occupations.

In the Cook Inlet region there are small Indian villages at Seldovia, Kenai and Tyonok. These natives are somewhat intermingled through marriage with the Russians who settled in this district over a century ago. They are also somewhat related to the natives living in the islands far to the westward, and it is not uncommon to find among them a distinctly Japanese type. They are a simple, friendly people, who become very intimate with the whites who are more than tourists in the country. They assist in the shipping and mining work of the inlet. They are an industrious people and when not engaged by white men may usually be seen at work fishing, gathering wood, preparing for or returning from some hunting expedition. In this district the bear and moose are abundant.

Throughout the interior of Alaska, away from the coastal provinces, the Indians have their headquarters or villages near the main rivers. They use those highways for travel, just as the white man has come to do. Throughout the summer season, they, as well as many of the white people, are busily engaged in catching and drying fish. They may leave their more permanent homes and scatter along the river banks, where they will live in tents or little temporary shacks, and with nets, traps or fish wheels in the river catch the salmon that are moving upstream from early in June until late in August. During the time that the fish are being cleaned, the native dogs, which are more plentiful than the people, have their annual feast. The fish when cleaned are hung up to dry and then stored away in certain little shacks which they call "fish caches." The chief food supply, both for the dogs and for the people, during the winter season, is fish and when carefully dried it is not an unpalatable foodstuff.

As we reached the lower portion of the Yukon valley we noticed that the natives had assumed some of the ways of the Eskimos who live in the coastal provinces bordering Bering Sea and the Arctic Ocean. We began to see the Eskimo *parkie* or outer garment. Moccasins would have the form or design of the Eskimo *muckluck*, but still retained some of the

ornamental beadwork which is characteristic of the work of the Indians. The birch-bark canoes gradually disappeared and the skin *kyaks* took their place. The lower Yukon country is a sort of transitional zone.

By the time we had reached the mouth of the river, the true Eskimos were seen, camping about St. Michaels and across the bay at Nome. Those at Nome had come chiefly from Cape Prince of Wales, where their winter home is located and where they keep their herds of reindeer. During the summer season these people, who love to travel and love to visit, were in temporary homes, made either by the upturning of one of their large boats, or in tents, located in the outskirts of the city. Here they were busily engaged, the men at carving or polishing ivory, the women at making *muckluks*, *kamilinks* or rain-coats, and large mats or rugs. The mats or rugs are made of pieces of hair seal, cut so that with the different colored hair an artistic design is made.

reindeer, and for each succeeding year two more head, until he has a nucleus of ten for his private herd.

My season's work, which had taken me through the interior and down the entire length of the Yukon River, ended at Nome. We left that metropolis late in the fall when signs of winter were appearing. The city is cosmopolitan in nature and a busy place throughout the year. During the summer the active mining is in progress both underground and at the surface. Outfits are continually made ready and trainloads, wagonloads or boatloads of provisions are leaving for the mining camps.

During the winter, Nome is reported as equally busy, for underground mining is still in progress, and large quantities of supplies are being moved over the snows for the next season's work in the more distant camps. As winter approaches, the ice begins to form in Bering Sea, until it is impossible to approach the city by boat, and with the freezing of the river all

ESKIMO HAULING REINDEER MEAT TO NOME MARKET

These people are great traders, and each afternoon and evening the men, women and children come through the streets of Nome, trying to dispose of some of the things they have made.

When fall approaches, the Eskimos leave for their winter home. There the men care for the reindeer and the young people attend the government schools. The schoolmaster is also the chief reindeer herder, and the men of the tribe may, if they wish, become assistant herders. After four years of satisfactory service, the assistant herder receives four head of

navigation into the interior ceases. The boats must all be drawn up out of the water and beyond reach of the ice, which during the break-up in the spring moves so vigorously that it would destroy any craft within reach. Through the interior, the season is virtually closed by the middle of November. The white people as well as the natives are then chiefly concerned in keeping warm and sleeping as much as possible, awaiting with interest the arrival of each week's mail, and with still greater interest the appearance of the next season's sun.

HAT do you know about life insurance — the institution that most intimately concerns you and your dependents — the moneys variously estimated to comprise the larger part of the estates of all who leave anything behind them?

If there is one thing more wonderful than the progress of life insurance in America, it is the complacent ignorance of Americans regarding it. Considering that the incidental features of life insurance science are of compelling interest wholly aside from the business of protection, this ignorance and apathy are still less understandable.

As the exponent of a practical system of the many sharing the burdens of the few, life insurance has its approach and analogy to communism and socialism — both here in America, where it is exploited through corporations, and abroad, where in addition to corporate mediums exist systems of compulsion and paternalism. The clamor of the British proletariat for old-age pensions, the stoical German workman's compulsory insurance, the Australian experiment in government insurance, are incidental features of the life insurance business representing live public issues of the day.

View its proportions. Twenty-four million policies are in force in the United States and Canada. Assuming that between three and four people are directly interested in the life of each policy, you attain numerically the entire population of the United States and territorial possessions.

That able and aggressive generalship has guided the life-insurance business is attested by its success — measured in one way by the payment of five hundred millions of dollars to policy-holders and beneficiaries during the past year by American and Canadian companies, and in another way by the record of five billion dollars paid to policy-holders and beneficiaries during the fifty years of its existence. That this generalship has not been in all qualities and at all times above reproach, is admitted.

To the interest inherent in life insurance have been added the dramatic occurrences

on the life-insurance stage of the last three years—the beginning of better things in a country's commercial morals.

Apart from the amusement and entertainment that can be derived in the acquisition of a little life-insurance knowledge, it becomes the obligation of practically all to know how to make use of life insurance. Should not the independent know how to protect their dependents, and thereby insure their own independence? And the dependent—should they not strive to learn how best to avoid the pauperism from which their dependency is narrowly separated by that uncertain thing, the life of another?

To repeat — what do you know of life insurance?

Hear the words of Lieutenant-Governor Thorne, of Kentucky, before a conference of governors, attorney-generals and insurance commissioners, called at Chicago in February, 1906, to consider the life-insurance situation, and arraign yourself by the breadth of the smile of good fellowship and understanding of this Kentuckian, when he addressed the chairman as follows:

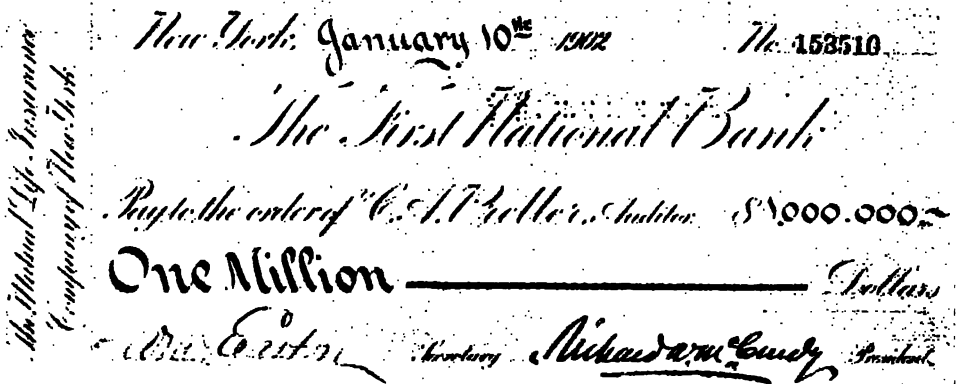
"Mr. Chairman,— I must say that the gentleman — whom I do not know — told you the truth when he said I did not know a deferred dividend from a bundle of firewood. We people 'way down in Kentucky and in the Southwest don't know anything about insurance at all. There is only one thing we do know — we have to pay our premiums on our insurance policies, *or make our annual contributions to the campaign fund.* We are forced to do that under penalty of our lapse of policies, and some few of us have been insured so long, and imposed on so long, that, like the fellow who had hold of the train, we can not afford to let go now. . . . I was out in the country taking depositions some time ago, at the house of a fellow who was very loud-mouthed about insurance. He had a picture framed and hung on the wall, gotten out by an insurance company (I will not say what company it was for fear of hurting some fellow's feelings), but it was a death-bed scene. A man was lying there with the death-sweat on his brow; his wife was standing over him, wiping off his forehead, and he had a broad grin on his face, and he was saying, 'Don't be disturbed — I'm insured in the Equitable!' I saw him

premium the paying of this income under the terms of the will.

More interesting, because more homely, are the investment features of life insurance. Through policies of this kind the young man and young woman achieve practically an estate upon payment of the first premium. It is theirs to will in event of their death during the investment

try whose assets amount at this time to more than one-half the national banking capital of the United States. These are but few of many.

As the series proceeds, it is proposed to tell you about these companies, and many others—to tell you what they have achieved, and call them by name. In the management of the companies, and in



THE MILLION-DOLLAR CHECK THAT SAVED A BUSINESS FROM IMPAIRMENT

The endorsement on the back shows it was paid to the administrators of the estate of the late Frank H. Peavey of Minneapolis

period of the contract; it is theirs to receive in cash in event of their surviving this period. This is called Endowment Insurance.

Like other forms of insurance, the primal pure insurance protection and the high-premium endowment policy will be expounded in this series, denuded of mystery, and in the simplicity that should have always surrounded these and the whole category of policies that intervene.

Far-reaching indeed is the arm of life insurance, and the need of knowing how to make it serve.

One company alone in America has in its membership one-tenth of the entire population of the United States. The work of this one company makes life insurance a national problem. It has more policy-holders than the combined population of twenty-four of the states and territories of the fifty-two forming the American union, exceeding the combined population of Greater New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, Boston, St. Louis, Cleveland, Cincinnati and Minneapolis.

There is another company in the coun-

try whose progress, mistakes have been made, private ambitions have arisen, adventurers have not been lacking. In recalling the mighty minds and hardy hands that have upbuilt life insurance, the greed, the avarice, the misdirected ambition that have threatened it, will not be omitted.

There have been makers of life insurance—there have been breakers of life insurance, and there have been those both makers and breakers. The story of the makers is a story of unexcelled achievement. The tale of the breakers chronicles at the same time a moral awakening. The tragedy of those who were both makers and breakers brings out the eternal verity that no man can serve two masters. In turn all these people will be dealt with, as their personalities blend into this narrative, as it deals with the dramatic investigation of life insurance.

Then comes the yellow dog, ugly in its yellowness, perhaps faithful to its purpose, but withal a cur. The history of the yellow dog goes back to the yellowest cur of all—the strike legislator that whistled

it into being — and concludes with the judgment of saffron-hued legislation that has marked its obsequies.

What about the campaign funds, to which Governor Thorne alluded so humorously? The yellow dog again — this time as guardian of billions of dollars value, pitifully raising its contemptible bark in answer to the free silver cry. The yellow dog is dead. No more will it thrive where it could only ineffectually guard, and grateful memory must record in its death a stampede among its fellows that promises to improve the morals of a nation.

The ideal in life insurance management and control is no less difficult to attain and preserve than the ideal in any other business in America. That the public expects more of life insurance is in itself complimentary to the cause, and that life insurance more nearly approaches the ideal than any other business interest in America is to-day a growing belief.

The men now in control of life insurance affairs are interesting in their personalities and abilities, because to-day is recognized as never before the quasi-public character of their service.

Second to no phase of life insurance is the allurements of the scientific side of the business — the side that deals with the problems of human life. It is a business crystallizing the study of life. In the review of this phase, vital statistics of compelling interest will be arrayed in their facts, robbed of their tediousness as mere figures. Popular errors as to longevity of races, cities and professions, that are wont to bring smiles but not contradictions to the mouths of actuarial experts, will be rehearsed and corrected. The attempts of scientists and mathematicians to build up a mathematical law of longevity that will follow with some of the certainty of the laws of the great natural forces, such as heat, light, gravity, comprising the efforts of centuries in an unattainable quest, will be briefly related.

Both because of popular concern, and because of the fact that many hesitate to apply for insurance, fearful of their physical abnormalities or ability to pass acceptable medical examination, these abnormalities will be reviewed through the eyes of insurance companies. Overweights, underweights, family history, personal history, habits, heredity, mal-

formations, are of this class. Incidentally the mortality of certain occupations, of total abstainers, of moderate drinkers, of cults like Christian Science, and other items of general interest incident to life insurance, will be briefly referred to from their catalogued places in the storehouse of insurance knowledge.

"How Life Insurance Can Serve You," will detail a review of costs and policies. Every man as a duty to himself and to those who have the right to expect protection, should know how best to achieve it. The different forms in life insurance, and the different ways of viewing a life-insurance premium, will be treated in succession. The reasons why a rich man should insure — why a poor man — why a young man — why a mature man. The insurance of women — its development and its field of usefulness, will be recognized for its increasing importance.

Beyond this, the evolution of the policy is an economic study that adds an appreciation of the special features and liberality of present forms. A little of the early history of life insurance will show its wagering inception, and its gradual development in the field of mathematical certitude — how the certainty of insurance as regards its mortality assumptions in the aggregate is pitted against the absolute uncertainty of individual existence.

It becomes the portion of the public to recognize the tremendous importance of life insurance — as an economic factor, and as a financial power, as well as its usefulness for protection against the vicissitudes of uncertain death and needy age.

Life insurance legislation, therefore, is a problem that affects alike the nation, the state, and the hearth, and is worthy of the intelligent deliberation of legislative bodies and of the people that give them power. The life-insurance legislation that has followed the investigation has been in many ways wise and beneficial, and in many other ways childish, restrictive and paternally ridiculous.

The spectacle of the companies of the country being driven out of the great State of Wisconsin through legislation impossible of consistent construction by the men who recommended and enacted it, would be humorous were it not destructive in effect and disastrous to the people of Wisconsin, who have given force to these

LAWRENCE O. MURRAY

COMPTROLLER OF THE CURRENCY

BY

C. H. FORBES-LINDSAY

THREE facts stand out prominently in a view of our latter-day civil service. They are these: The standard of efficiency is higher than ever before; the most important work is being done by comparatively young men; and political "pull" is in no degree necessary to promotion, but is, in fact, almost a negligible quantity.

Twenty years ago, it would have been difficult to have found a man, without influence, attaining at middle-age to one of the highest official positions under the government and devoting himself with whole-souled disinterestedness to the service of the public. To-day, a score or more of such men may be pointed to in Washington. Lawrence O. Murray, the recently appointed Comptroller of the Currency, is one of them.

Lawrence Murray was launched upon life under the conditions of the average American boy. His parents gave him the opportunity for a limited course of study in the graded school of Addison, New York, where he was born in 1864. His university training he compassed by his own efforts. His degrees in law — he has half a dozen conferred by different institutions of learning — he secured while supporting himself as a stenographer. Whatever good fortune has come to him in life he has earned, and his character is so constituted that he would not value anything that should come to him otherwise. He has the Scotch-Irish temperament that finds the most intense pleasure in the pursuit of an object through difficulties.

It was in the year 1894 that Mr. Murray entered the government service in the capacity of private secretary to the Assistant Secretary of the Treasury. He soon displayed the remarkably keen faculty for sifting and analyzing that

causes his associates to speak of him as the "tooth-comb." This faculty, which made his services on the Keep Commission exceedingly valuable, led to his promotion to the position of chief of the organization division of the department and later to that of Deputy Comptroller of the Currency. In 1898 he resigned the latter office in order to become an officer in one of the largest trust companies of Chicago. Six years later, President Roosevelt appointed him to the position of Assistant Secretary in the Department of Commerce and Labor. That he had no political backing worth consideration may be inferred from the fact that, although not a shadow of valid objection could be advanced against his appointment, the nomination was not confirmed until nine months after it had been made.

The President entertains the highest estimate of Mr. Murray's ability, as has been shown by his inclusion in several of the most important commissions that have been created during the present administration. Lawrence Murray acts as a balance wheel in these bodies by reason of his exceptional ability to take a judicial and absolutely impartial view of any question. He has in a pronounced degree the faculty, which he habitually exercises, of putting himself in the other man's place, or seeing a matter from both sides of the fence. This, combined with a most catholic sympathy, enables him to arrive in short order at the root and remedy of such matters as the recent Goldfield dispute. As an arbitrator he has few equals in public life.

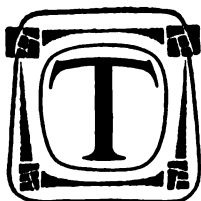
Lawrence Murray is one of the ball-bearing type of men. He goes on his way, exerting force without creating friction and avoiding friction without compromise of principle or position. This is not due so much to a readiness to cast oil

MODERN WIZARDS

BY

HERBERT VANDERHOOF

EDITOR OF "CANADA-WEST," AUTHOR OF "DOLLAR WHEAT," ETC.



THIS modern day in which we have our existence is often charged with the crime of being wholly prosaic as well as exclusively practical. Romance and adventure have no part in it, the indictment runs. The race of adventurers, whether gentlemen-adventurers, pirates, soldiers of fortune or common highwaymen, diminishes to the vanishing point. The ancient incentives to daring, to combat and to risk no longer are alive to incite men to famous deeds and hair-raising escapades. The gleam has vanished. Earth is gray.

Nevertheless, the least imaginative of us all resents the indictment. There is romance, if wonder be romantic, in this present time. There are heroes, if workers of wonders be heroes, in this present generation. If Edison is a wizard, the modern "captain of industry" is a wonder. His performances are immense, his feats prodigious. From a swivel chair he directs operations over half a continent, and the adventures of his emissaries in executing his commands, whether in exploration or construction, are as stirring as those of the buccaneers who harried the Spanish Main, or of the English clerks who conquered India.

There are still extant a few specimens of the professional adventurer, such as the hunters of big game in the African bush, the Alpine climbers and the would-be discoverers of the North Pole. But the engineers rival them — the men who build the railroads, carry their surveys into the far corners of the earth, meet dangers, conquer hardships, fling across a thousand miles of wilderness a way of steel, surmount unmapped mountains with their grades and erect new cities on new seas. The engineers are the modern Drakes and

Frobishers, the twentieth-century Clives and Hastings, the makers of empire, the pioneers.

Marvelous as are their feats of construction in the well-settled countries of Europe and America, it is Canada's vast dominion that within the last few years has furnished the happy hunting-ground of the construction engineer. This wide and sparsely settled country whose population has touched the six-million mark only within the last year, has been constructing railroads with a rapidity that is truly marvelous. When the Confederation of the Dominion was established in 1867, there were less than three thousand miles of railroad in the entire country. To-day there are over twenty-one thousand miles, a great proportion of which has been laid in the last ten years.

Within this same period Canadian development along all lines has been marked by prodigious activity. Loyal and progressive Canadians now feel that Canada is fated to work out her own salvation without regard to reciprocity with the United States; and they are bending every energy to develop her resources and to open to settlement her enormous tracts of untouched agricultural lands. To this end transportation is the prime requisite; therefore the activity in building of railroads by our aroused and ambitious neighbor.

The Canadian people are small in numbers — only 6,442,581 — but they possess a country larger than the United States and Alaska as their heritage. Their numbers, limited though they be, are imbued with an ambition proportionate to the extent of their territory and the richness of its resources. Especially in the West there is rife among the sparse population a spirit which fears nothing, which hopes all things, and which has resolutely determined to accomplish the self-appointed

years. That is the sort of enterprise that is giving Canada more railroad mileage per capita than any other country on the globe. Even in the United States, which has something of a reputation for enterprise, 5,874 miles of new road were added to the total mileage of 222,282 during last year, an increase of 2.56 per cent; whereas, in Canada the total mileage of 21,353 was increased by 1,492 miles, or 6.9 per cent. Regard these figures in relation to population and they appear even more striking. Mexico has a population of 13,605,819, more than twice as great as that of Canada: but Mexico laid in 1907 only 356 miles of railroad, or one mile to every 38,218 persons; the United States, one mile for every 14,218 persons of her eighty-three millions. Canada, however, with only 6,442,581 inhabitants, constructed a railroad mile for every 4,980 persons.

Such a tremendous achievement means an enormous expenditure of labor, of materials and of money, the last involving the importation of capital upon a great scale. It is said that eighty per cent of the capital that is pouring into Canada comes from the United States, and hence

it is of great interest to Americans to be acquainted with every particular affecting Canadian development. Even if the bulk of American capital be invested in lands and industries, and not in railroads, the lands and industries are so intimately connected with railroad development that the latter must interest Americans as much as it does Canadians.

Naturally the greater part of the railroad building has been done in the West, where there is still an empire of untouched land to be reclaimed; yet the East has not been neglected. The Canadian Pacific is the only finished transcontinental line; but the Canadian Northern is not content to be confined to the prairies, and through its affiliated companies in Ontario and Quebec it is stretching its steel armor to touch tidewater on the Atlantic Coast, where in Nova Scotia it already operates its lines. The newest of them all, the National Transcontinental, the Grand Trunk Pacific, is in process of construction straight across the continent, both in the East and in the West, from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

The following table shows the building that was done during 1907:

THE CANADIAN NORTHERN RAILWAY BRIDGE UNDER CONSTRUCTION AT PRINCE ALBERT
Showing the method of building in the winter

WILLIAM MACKENZIE

President of the Canadian Northern Railway, which has grown a mile a day for eleven years

spreading northward, and partly by the fact that a northern port would be nearer the Oriental markets than a southern one and thus possess an advantage as a terminus.

The company is building a new town, Prince Rupert, on the coast of British Columbia, about five hundred and fifty miles north of Vancouver, and fifty miles south of the southern extremity of Alaska. Three thousand miles away to the east, at Moncton on the Atlantic, is the eastern terminus of the same road. To the north and to the south of this long main line there are to extend branches which will transform the youngster among railroads into a mammoth.

Altogether 7,900 miles of construction have been authorized for the Grand Trunk Pacific, and this vast undertaking is presided over by Charles Melville Hays, who demonstrated his ability by reorganizing the old Grand Trunk. The eastern

section is being built by the Dominion government to lease to the Grand Trunk Pacific, while the western part from Winnipeg to the coast is being built by the company itself with government aid in the way of guarantees for its bonds. The first sod was turned in 1905 and since then most of the work has been done west of Lake Superior in an effort to get a share in carrying the grain crops of that region, which are overtaxing the older roads. During 1907, while only fifty miles were built out of Quebec, two hundred and fifty miles were laid westward from Portage la Prairie. By another harvest season this road will be carrying grain from Edmonton, eight hundred miles northwest of Winnipeg, to Lake Superior.

That is the immediate ambition of all the western railroads, to tap the rich agricultural country and get their share of the moving of the crops. For that purpose the Canadian Northern did the largest amount of its building on its line from Winnipeg through Brandon to Regina, the completion giving them three lines through the rich wheat lands of western Manitoba and central Saskatchewan.

The other aim, the more ambitious but less immediate, has never been lost sight of, however. The engineers are still conspiring to reduce the distance to the ultimate goals, the foreign markets. In their surveys Liverpool and Shanghai are in their mind's eye. The Hudson Bay route is still the dream, as it has been for many years in the country of the Canadian West.

In the early days of the Hudson Bay Company the route was not a dream but a fact. Every year the company's vessels invaded the vast inland sea and at its

Still farther westward it is distance, just huge, almost immeasurable distance that confronts and defies the road-builder. Nature here is upon a grand scale, mile upon mile of unbroken prairie, then mile upon mile of parklike country, then a river that requires a bridge two thousand feet long to span it. In this central part of the country, which stretches nine hundred miles from east to west, the labor-saving machines are particularly useful. There are no mountains or rock, and the steam shovels can bite into the loam and clay of the prairie soil unhindered.

However, hundreds of men are needed, and, while in the East we found the contractors importing Highlanders, and on the coast the Oriental wields the pick and shovel, here in the center the Doukhobors with their strange Russian garb are the element most in evidence. This eccentric people contract for the grading of large sections of roadbed and do very satisfactory work. In the gangs of the regular contractors there is the usual motley assembly that characterizes such gangs all over North America, although the Galician in sheepskin coat and high boots is more to the front than he is south of the border, where we are accustomed to having the Italian do most of our digging for us.

Bridge building is very important in this land of large rivers. Strangely enough the most of it is done in winter. In that northern latitude the builder can be sure of solid ice for several months, and it is much more economical to haul the materials on the ice than by boat in the summer. A temporary tramway can be laid on the ice and the little cars of gravel and concrete run out to the points where the piers are to stand. About each pier a casing is constructed which is kept warm with steam from the power-house on the shore. After the concrete is laid, water is run in to keep out the frost. During the past winter the Canadian Northern has taken advantage of the cold months to build two large bridges, one over the Rainy River at Fort Frances on the new direct line from Winnipeg to Duluth, one over the North Saskatchewan at Prince Albert where a short line is to extend to Battleford.

Lastly there are the mountains, the rugged backbone of the continent. Here

are the problems that task the genius of the engineer. At present there is no active construction work going on in the Rockies, but the trail of the locating engineer is over all their peaks and valleys from the Kicking Horse, where the Canadian Pacific main line crosses the divide, to Peace River Pass, five hundred miles northward.

For three years engineers for the Grand Trunk Pacific explored the passes before the company decided upon the Yellowhead, which affords their line the lowest possible grade between the prairies and the Pacific. If these men could be induced to write the story of their adventures in that unknown land, most of which had never felt the impress of a white foot, what a "thriller" it would be! The schoolboy would be smuggling the book up to bed with him, unable to resist the fascination of this very modern tale of a strange land and wild adventure.

These engineers and the prospectors and timber-cruisers, who followed them, found wide valleys of agricultural land, where wheat will be growing in four or five years, mile upon mile of valuable timber lands and rich minerals. In a sheltered nook in the Rockies were discovered the last of the Iroquois, a remnant of that once-powerful nation which had been driven hither and yon across the continent and finally had sought refuge in the fastnesses of those hills, vanishing until now from the knowledge of the white man. They live to-day the primitive Indian life, unenlightened and uncorrupted by the customs of civilization.

Thus it is, the railroad engineer encounters the perilous, the wild, the rich opportunity, even while he is bent upon taming the wilderness and fettering its freedom in bonds of steel. The great Country of the North is giving him employment in ever-increasing quantities and is set upon using more and more of his kind, until the day comes when the whole Dominion is gridironed with the steel. In that day a thick population will fill the prairies and be busy in the mountains, and Canada will feed the British Empire with her wheat and house it with her lumber, and the transportation of her products will keep the perpetual smile upon the faces of stockholders in companies operating half a million miles of rail.

A MEXICAN BULL-FIGHT AS WITNESSED BY AN AMERICAN GIRL

BY

MILDRED L. WOODRUFF

Photographs by Sumner W. Matteson

BULL-FIGHTING is so old and familiar an institution that there would seem to be nothing to add to what has already been said upon the subject. Yet, in point of popularization there is very little to be said by the millions of Americans of the typical character of this national game of Spanish-speaking people.

Nor, indeed, should much importance be attached to it so far as distant concerns are concerned. It may awaken a momentary interest to learn that Alphonso attends the bull-fight every Sunday, but the knowledge thereof certainly adds nothing to the American's education. With our next voyage to Mexico, however, the situation presents itself in a new light — a new era of development — a new era which can hardly be said to have having no significance a year more and more for various reasons in Mexico. The town

with its picturesque features; the capitalist and adventurer, by its commercial opportunities and undeveloped resources; and the health-seeker, by its climatic conditions.

There is a large colony of resident

Americans in Mexico City, and they are to be found everywhere in the public, even in the most remote of the larger towns. One is amazed to perceive by the American that the bull-fight is regarded as a matter of course as one of the common sights which must not be omitted from the program, while many of the most cultured Americans appear to regard the national sport as one of their adopted customs. I attended these performances openly and with enthusiasm as they do at home.

It seemed to me to be a subject which led into a problem of its ethical relations to standards. So I refused to witness the same, believing it to be a spectacle for amusement only and not a countenance by her that I should if I did not now have the opportunity of

studying the question at close range.

I therefore determined to judge for myself whether the game was merely a harmless amusement, "awfully exciting, but not at all cruel," as one American girl assured me, or whether the American

cans in Mexico were proving untrue both to themselves and to the ideals of their own country.

We were "fortunate" enough to be able to arrange our plans so as to be in Mexico City upon a Sunday when everything combined to make the event of the day one of great *éclat* and importance. The interest over it had been running high during the preceding week, the whole city seeming to be in a quiver of suppressed excitement as if in anticipation of some momentous event. Unusual prominence had been given this special performance by the announcement that it was to be a celebration in honor of Kaiser Wilhelm's birthday. Then, the two greatest living matadors, Fuentes and Bombita, were to be the double attraction of the afternoon, and Segura, a young Mexican millionaire, who was said to have paid Fuentes \$10,000 for the privilege, was to take part for the first time as matador. Further-

more, as if to add the crowning feature of morbid interest and novel excitement to the occasion, was the fact that two weeks before, in the same arena, the fearless Montes, who was then accounted the greatest matador in the world, and King Alphonso's favorite, had been killed by being pinned against the wall by one of the bulls in such a manner that escape was impossible. It was well known that Fuentes, who had been strongly attached to the victim of this tragedy, was brooding over the affair and might therefore lose his own nerve, and fail. All of which lent an additional element of danger, thrilling and delicious, to the occasion.

Sunday arrived, the great day! *Wish-*ing to watch the people as they entered, we went early and took our seats in an upper box where we could see all without being too near the scene of action. The day was ideal, giving the resident ladies an opportunity to appear in all the bril-

THE BULL CHARGING AT A BLINDFOLDED HORSE

The picador rider lashes the horse forward to his doom. Fuentes and Bombita, the matadors, are looking on

BOMBITA
A noted matador

liancy of their Parisian finery, and we noticed that many of the Spanish and Mexican women were decked out in superb gowns, feather boas and plumed hats. We could easily single out the Americans by their simpler costumes.

Every seat was filled and hundreds were standing. Eighteen thousand had gathered to witness the fight. We were informed that this ring had a seating capacity of only fifteen thousand, but that a new steel ring with a seating capacity of twenty-two thousand was being built by a stock company. Our box seats and all others on the shaded half of the arena were \$5 Mexican money, excepting the lower three rows, which were \$10, \$8, and \$6 each, while those on the sunny side were all \$2 each. The government gets fifteen per cent of the gross receipts.

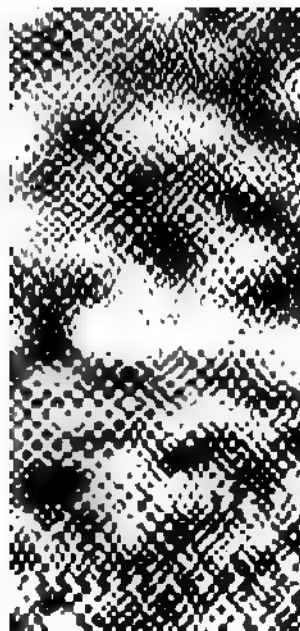
Suddenly, while we were absorbed in the animated scene before us, the laughter and talking were hushed as the band began to play. The gates were thrown open for the *entrada de la cuadrilla* or entrance of the procession, led by the *Alguacil* who, mounted upon a splendid

VICENTE SEGURA
A young millionaire who paid \$10,000 for the privilege of taking part as a matador

of the oldest in the service on the left and the youngest in the center, followed by a *solvesaliente* to substitute in case all three should be injured. The decorations on the suits of these matadors were pure gold. The wealthy Segura, we were told, had three suits which were made in Spain at a cost of \$27,000. Also, we were interested to learn that Fuentes and Bombita receive \$5,000 every time they fight, besides a benefit during the season netting each one \$20,000.

Next came the *banderilleros* in glittering costumes, some of pink, others of blue, red, green, or white and gold. There were two of these for each matador. Then the mounted picadors, and finally the peons who do the cape work and put the bull in fighting condition, and the *monas sabios* or wise monkeys with their mule teams. All marched grandly, as if fully realizing that they were the idols and heroes of that great assembled multitude.

I held my breath, feeling the wave of



FUENTES
One of the greatest living matadors

ROUSING A TAME BULL

Banderillas — sharp, fish-hook pointed instruments — loaded with explosives, are plunged into the shoulders of the animal

enthusiasm that ran through the audience. Everybody rose to their feet as the toreadors, or toreros, took off their hats and bowed. It was as if royalty, even the Kaiser himself, had entered.

Those of these fantastically-arrayed individuals who were to remain in the arena stationed themselves in various places about the ring. Again the bugle was sounded, another gate was thrown open and a magnificent black Spanish bull came dashing in. He looked ferocious enough, but, lest he should prove not to be sufficiently keyed up to the occasion, thus disappointing the spectators and having to be removed and another substituted, a hooked rosette bearing his farm colors was thrust into his shoulder as he entered, the evident intent being to make him assume a virtue even if he had it not, as indeed seemed to me later to be the case.

The poor dazed creature stood for an instant as if wondering what it was all about, trying to get his bearings, then rushed at the matador and pions who were waving their brightly colored capes to attract and distract his attention.

It seemed like quite an innocent game as he lowered his horns first at one and then another of his tormentors who easily got out of his way, but one could see from

the first that it was to be no "fight" in the true sense of the word. The bull was not given the faintest ghost of a fighting chance, as a matador must be very clumsy or very careless to be harmed by the poor animal, and I recalled Cordelia's idea of justice and agreed with her that even an animal was entitled to some degree of fair play.

Failing to get satisfaction out of the capes or the men behind them, the bull now charged on the blindfolded horses, whose riders, the picadors, held their lances firmly set to wound the bull between the shoulder-blades, and one poor horse was lifted on the horns of the bull and gored until its entrails trailed on the ground as it plunged and stumbled blindly about. Faint and furious at this sickening spectacle I turned away, so that I did not witness the death of the poor animal. The horses ridden by the picadors are always blindfolded, thus easily falling hapless and helpless victims to the sharp horns of the goaded bull. When they are torn beyond the power of whip and spur to incite to further service, they are in many cases taken out of the ring, their gored sides are stitched up, and then the trembling, agonized creatures are again driven into the arena. The average killed is eight.

ate a too-tame bull after the two substitutes have been used in replacing other tame bulls, and once the banderillas have been placed, the bull must go through to be killed. The more of these the banderilleros succeeded in plunging into the now sufficiently infuriated animal, the more tumultuous the applause.

The sight of the blood streaming from the poor tortured beast was evidently the most delightful and intoxicating sight imaginable to the bloodthirsty pleasure-seekers. And not only to the Mexican and Spanish part of the audience, to whom this national sport is the habit of a lifetime and who can be forgiven as not knowing any better, but, to the shame of our own country, it must be confessed that of the many Americans who were there some, at least, vied with their semi-barbaric neighbors in enjoyment and enthusiasm. One American woman leaned out of the box, clapped her hands and cried "Good!" at every skilful play of this nature, and another was aroused to such a pitch of enthusiasm that she so far forgot her womanhood as to throw her bunch of violets into the ring and plume herself visibly at receiving a bow, in recognition of the compliment, from the matador. And these two were known to our party to have received the best culture that birth, refinement and wealth could bestow. This certainly presents a new and serious problem to the attention of the sociologist.

After twenty minutes or more of this sort of thing, the young millionaire initiate thrust the death-sword into the spine of the bull. The wild applause redoubled and the band struck up once more as if, as it seemed to me, to drown the bellowing of the pain-crazed animal as he sank dying to the ground. Next a team of mules dashed in and the bodies of the dead bull and two horses were dragged off, the blood rushing out in pools.

We were informed that the rules of the game demanded that this performance be repeated until six bulls had been brought in — one at a time of course — and tortured to death in this manner. But after the slaughtering of the first one, several of our party, concluding that, like Rip Van Winkle, we knew when we had had enough, now made haste to take our departure, disgusted, appalled and furious

COAXING A BULL

Fuentes endeavoring to get the bull into a position where he can be killed by a single sword thrust between the shoulders

THE BULL LIFTING A HORSE ON ITS HORNS

Inflamed by the wounds inflicted by the lances of the picadors, the bull charges on the blindfolded horse and gores him cruelly. Sometimes as many as eighteen horses are killed on one day

beyond measure. We could readily believe the information that to the barbarities we had witnessed were added others equally brutal, some of which were practiced out of sight of the audience, although why out of its sight it was impossible to understand, as it would seem that these audiences would stand for any imaginable atrocity and enjoy and applaud it. The final disposal of the bulls adds another sickening feature to the whole scheme. Poisoned as the flesh must certainly be for the consumption of human beings, these bodies are still a marketable commodity. They are bought by

the state at \$75 each for *charity hospitals* and *prisons*. Comment on this is unnecessary.

It is said that President Diaz, the grand old man of Mexico, has resolved to put an end to bull-fighting in the republic, realizing full well the degrading effect that it has upon his people. However true this may be, it is a well established fact that he will not himself attend a fight and that his wife is using her influence against the practice. Let us hope that Diaz will live to add this great reform to the many already accomplished during his administration.

THE NEW PRIME MINISTER OF GREAT BRITAIN

BY

T. P. O'CONNOR, M. P.

Mr. O'Connor, known as "T. P." ("Tay Pay") is one of the most interesting figures in British public life. He has been a member of Parliament from Liverpool since 1885. He has been editor of a number of publications and is now editor of "T. P.'s Weekly." He is in a position to know the new Prime Minister, and his character sketch is as authoritative as it is vivid.

IT seems to me but yesterday when I saw Mr. Asquith, a slim, round-faced, modest youth, rising in a law court to begin the cross-examination of Mr. MacDonald, the manager of the *Times*. It was the moment when the Commission of Three Judges appointed to investigate the charge brought by the *Times* against Mr. Parnell, and especially the letter attributed to him — afterward found to have been forged by Richard Pigott — had at last reached what was regarded as the culminating point of the inquiry.

For weeks the counsel for the *Times* had been laying before the court statements with regard to the general working of the Land League and the condition of the country, and there had appeared on the witness table a dreary and sinister procession of the worst figures in Irish life: the assassin, the informer, the spy, all these terrible beings who are bred in the atmosphere of civil war, of hideous oppression on the one side, and violent resistance on the other — despotism confronted by revolt, just as, on a more gigantic scale, there are the same struggle and the same episodes and figures in the greater drama played on the larger scale in Russia.

But everybody was getting impatient, and what was really wanted was evidence to show whether the famous letter, in which Parnell was represented as writing encouragingly and approvingly to the

Phoenix Park assassins, was really written by Parnell or was the work of a forger. It was the human and personal element in this, as in all dramas, that was far more interesting to the general public than the general political issues.

At last the advisers of the *Times* felt that they could no longer put off this part of the case, and they began to place in the box the members of the *Times* staff who had been responsible for accepting and inserting the letter which had aroused such world-wide excitement. The chief witness for the *Times* was, of course, to be Pigott himself; but this witness was left to Sir Charles Russell, the leading counsel for Mr. Parnell, and those who saw the way in which the unfortunate forger was exposed, crumpled up, and annihilated by that master of the arts of the advocate, will never forget their mingled feelings of horror, triumph, and pity. It was as if a tiger were shaking a miserable but noxious rat.

Mr. Asquith was then a junior counsel, seated behind his chief and taking his suggestions with the deference which was at once due to Russell because he was a leader and because he was the greatest man of his time in his and Mr. Asquith's profession. To Mr. Asquith was handed over Mr. MacDonald as one of the minor figures in the drama; and there was something curious in the contrast between the Asquith of those far-off days and the witness he was about to examine.

Mr. MacDonald was typically Scotch in appearance and manner; slow of speech, with a certain mixture of shrewdness and good humor in his face; but when he came to be put under the lashing ire of the clean-shaven and alert young stripling who was confronting him, again there came the curious feeling in the spectator — especially the spectator like myself, who was on the side of Parnell — of admiration, triumph, and pity.

You could see poor MacDonald visibly shrinking and "wilting" — to use an expressive Americanism — under the pointed questions of the youngster; the whole expression of the face became transformed, and even deformed; the shrewd smile was distorted into something like senile cunning, a cunning that was but another word for vacuous gullibility; in short, when the cross-examination was over, the reputation of Mr. MacDonald and of the *Times* was dead; the world had been shown what lay behind the imposing and century-old exterior, and found, under the guidance of this young iconoclast in a stuff gown, nothing but incredible simplicity and an incapacity that was more conspicuous because of its assumption of cleverness.

This all appears to me as though it were but yesterday — it is really some twenty years ago; and sometimes as I look at Mr. Asquith now across the floor of the House of Commons I find it a little difficult to realize that the man whom hard work, heavy responsibility — all the anxieties of public life — have transformed into the middle-aged man with whitening hair is the same as the fresh boy of that other epoch. But the transformation externally reflects a mental transformation as well. There is about the face now a suggestion of greater self-confidence, a broadened and enriched mind, the more settled purpose which experience and triumphs have brought to the statesman and minister.

I should add that there is also about the face a greater serenity, a milder expression, a more tolerant air than in the face of the younger man. There used to be reproach against Mr. Asquith that he did not suffer fools gladly; he had something in him of that temptation against which I remember young Catholic boys used to be specially warned: "the pride

of life," the arrogance of the intellectual and the broadminded and the far-seeing for all the narrowness, the pettiness, and the partisan rancor of which one finds so much in political life. Mr. Asquith has mellowed in temperament as well as broadened in mind with years and experience.

Mr. Asquith began life with no advantages from fortune. His means were modest; he came from one of those middle-class Nonconformist families in Yorkshire who are the salt of the earth but command none of the ordinary accesses to political and social success. His first moment of promise came when he was sent to Balliol. As everybody knows, Balliol, in the days of Mr. Asquith's youth, was ruled by one of the great spirits of his time, Mr. Jowett; and that fact alone, as well as its long and glorious history as the great working college of the university, gave to the Balliol student a certain prestige. To become, then, the most promising student of Balliol was to start in the world of London with a certain advantage.

But, after all, what does London know or care about the glories of the provinces or of the universities? It is the most leveling of all cities — to the foreigner who comes within its gates with a reputation made elsewhere, often the most disillusioning and disheartening. And young Asquith, fresh from Oxford, had simply to start like every other young barrister and sit in his chambers and wait for briefs. The briefs, I believe, did not at first come too quickly. Indeed, it is doubtful if Mr. Asquith would have ever made a great professional position, have ever been known as a mighty lawyer and scholar in merely legal lore. He had been some years at the bar when I saw him in that momentous scene in his life which I began by describing; and, if I mistake not, it was the first occasion on which the great big world really appreciated the very remarkable man that he is.

What, then, is the great secret of Mr. Asquith's rise? It is simply his immense and instinctive oratorical power. Oratory is one of those gifts that come from the bountiful hand of Nature, direct, unmistakable, spontaneous. If a man have it, the world recognizes — has to recognize — it at once. It is, indeed, like all

forms of magnetic personality; it does not ask, it demands and extorts admiration and attention. Sometimes men become good and effective debaters by sheer training; I have seen quite stumbling speakers become quite adept debaters in the House of Commons by the sheer practice that was forced upon them by official position. But the orator is born, not made; while the debater may be made, though not born.

Mr. Asquith is the born orator. The House of Commons recognized *that* the very first moment he stood up in the House. The curious and the thrilled silence which a real orator at once creates is the unmistakable proof of his possession of the gift. It comes at once; it comes almost without the asking; sometimes it comes merely from the first sound of the voice. For voice is one of the orator's greatest instruments of his success; and the voice which tells most is that which has a certain under-swell of passion and emotion, though the surface may be serene and self-controlled, as it was in the case of Bright, for instance, who was one of the greatest orators the House of Commons ever heard.

Sheer, downright, unmistakable, supreme ability—that has been Mr. Asquith's chief source of success; and oratory is the best revelation of the possession of such supreme ability. Thus it is that he is one of the cases where success came with extraordinary rapidity, and apparently even without much effort. When in 1892 the return of the Liberals made a Liberal government inevitable, everybody knew that Mr. Asquith must be one of the new cabinet. Yet how few people realized how little Mr. Asquith had striven to earn that mighty distinction! I do not believe that he had made altogether more than a dozen speeches during his few years of parliamentary life. He had never held a subordinate office. It is only supreme ability that is able to pluck the biggest laurels after this fashion.

When some question arose as to who should have the big offices and who the small, again there was no doubt about it. Mr. Asquith would have rejected any but a big office; and he got his big office as Home Secretary. In office, again he justified the promise of his opposition days.

He had not mellowed then to the degree he has since; once or twice his impatience of temper led him into some indiscretions; and sometimes, as in the case of the Featherstone rioters, he was unjustly assailed. But he proved he was a man of stout heart in resisting such attacks, and one to be counted with.

He showed his stoutness of heart by his action immediately after his resignation of office. From the great position of a cabinet minister—and a cabinet minister who was one of the principal secretaries of state—he went back to his dingy chambers in the Temple, and once more took up the practice of his profession. It was a fine practice, but, still, it was a come-down from the glories and the power of one of the rulers of the country, and it speaks highly for the moral courage of Mr. Asquith that he was able to do it.

Then came years when absorption in his professional duties, and perhaps a certain disinclination to speak without power to make good his words, produced a kind of hiatus in his parliamentary career. He paid little attention to the House of Commons, and rarely took part in its debates. An even more critical hour in his fortunes came when the Boer War brought dissension into the Liberal ranks, and when Mr. Asquith became one of the little group, inspired by Lord Rosebery, that supported the war and thereby separated themselves from the leadership of Campbell-Bannerman and the main body of the Liberal party.

These splits in parties are often very difficult to heal, and usually end in open and complete rupture. What might have been the fate of Mr. Asquith if the split had gone on, and if he had definitely separated himself from the radical section of the Liberal party, it is difficult to say. He would, of course, have been welcomed by the other side. A man of his commanding abilities can always make a place for himself, but probably he would not have found himself at home there; his Nonconformist origin would probably have made him a rather awkward bedfellow for the strong churchmen who form a majority of the Unionist party.

Mr. Chamberlain it was who solved this question, as well as a good many others, personal and political. Dear me, how

clearly that afternoon stands out in my memory, when Mr. Chamberlain, for the first time, fully revealed to the House of Commons his change of conviction on the fiscal question, and his resolve to place once more the momentous issues of free trade and protection before the nation. The House of Commons is one of the most readily responsive bodies in the world. It soon tells you when it is profoundly moved; and as in the case of the individual, its moments of profound emotion are also its moments of deepest silence. I remember well seeing the thin, alert figure, with the pallid face — more pallid than usual, if that were possible, at this terrible moment — as it stood out in the semi-darkness of that afternoon, and the cold, clear, well-controlled voice, and then the hushed awe of the assembly, the awe that showed how well it understood that at that moment history was being made and the country was about to enter on one of those momentous struggles in which the fundamental passion and interests of every man were involved.

Furthermore, there was scarcely a man in the assembly who did not feel that his future also was being transformed for him. He was brought face to face with civil war and all its dread horrors and incredible possibilities, and he was called upon to make his choice; and on his choice depended either his political progress or his political dissolution. Mr. Asquith was one of the men who ought to have felt exultant, for it was in that hour that his great destiny was practically made certain. Mr. Chamberlain had made it inevitable that the divisions in the Liberal party should come to an end; and not only that, but also had drawn the great curtain of oblivion over all the differences and the bitterness of the past. The Liberal party was once again a unit and Mr. Asquith resumed his natural place as one of its inevitable and supreme leaders.

Even yet, however, the perils that confronted him were not over. Again it was a political opponent that helped to solve the future for Mr. Asquith. By resigning before the general election, Mr. Balfour once more made Mr. Asquith the inevitable man for the second place in the ministry. It is quite possible that if the nomination of the ministry had been

postponed till after the tremendous victory of the radical section of the party at the polls, Mr. Asquith might have had to give way for one of the more radical section.

But the future was uncertain; the forces were about to enter the battle lists; it was necessary that all sections should combine; and so Mr. Asquith secured the great place of Chancellor of the Exchequer, with, of course, the deputy leadership of the House which attaches to that office. But even at the last hour the future of Mr. Asquith was trembling in the balance. He certainly has the immense advantage of downright and persistent good luck. There were some days of awful suspense, during which it was uncertain whether the Liberal Imperialists would join ranks with the new ministry. I believe Mr. Asquith was not the man who was leader of the hesitants, but he was bound by certain personal and political obligations to stand by his friends. Fortunately the little group had to deal with a man of imperturbable good humor and great good nature in C.-B.; and the differences were adjusted. But suppose they had not been and Mr. Asquith were a private member on the back benches, how he would be eating out his heart now! For with the lamentable illness of C.-B., which was so soon to be followed by his resignation, the mantle of Prime Minister fell upon Mr. Asquith. When his hour came he was ready for it; he rose to it, if indeed such a word be the proper one to apply to the complete and serene adaptation of such a man to his natural place. He has been genial, conciliatory, and friendly; and when the occasion has required he has been firm and outspoken.

Mr. Asquith is about the middle-height — below rather than above it; his figure is slight, though well-knit and robust; he had the fair hair of the typical Saxon until it began to whiten. His face is short, clean-shaven, was hatchet-shaped in youth, is now rounder and fuller; he is typically lawyerlike and English. The lips are somewhat thin and tightly compressed; they give some indication by their mobility and compression of the complex nature, at once emotional as becomes the orator, and strong as becomes a leader of men.

PREPARING TO NOMINATE A PRESIDENT

BY

H. L. BEACH



WHEN the band strikes up, and the delegates, the alternates, and the spectators attendant upon a great national political convention, are pouring through the entrances of the convention hall with great confusion and tremendous uproar, how many of them, or of the great world outside, appreciate the labor and money expended to make that great building correct in arrangement and attractive in appearance? Possibly a small fragment of one per cent.

After it has been decided in what city the convention is to be held, the first work of preparation consists in providing a hall and collecting money for the running expenses. It is always easy to secure promises of contribution, but when the time arrives for the payment of these subscriptions many of the men who are prolific in promise are feeble in performance, and they must be urged again and again to make payments. They all "arrive" sooner or later, but the task of getting the money from them and of raising generally the funds necessary to defray the expenses of a convention is neither a light nor a pleasant undertaking.

In many instances it has been found necessary to construct temporary buildings or "wigwams" for the convention, and many of these were admirable for the purpose. But of late years so many cities have erected halls sufficiently large for the greatest convention that the choice of location has been largely limited to them. In all of these buildings, however, a vast amount of alteration and rearrangement is necessary. The next national convention, that of the Republican party, is to be held on June 17 in the Coliseum in Chicago, and the task of preparing this for the five days during which the conven-

tion is expected to last is a fair sample of the amount of work and the expenditure of time necessary for the housing of a convention.

Before any physical work was done, six plans for the reconstruction of the interior of the Coliseum were submitted to the local arrangement committee and the subcommittee of the national committee by the architect, Arthur G. Brown. These plans involved almost every conceivable method of rearrangement and all possible variations in the placing of seats for delegates, alternates and spectators.

In one plan the speaker's rostrum was located on the east side of the building, in another, at the south end, in a third, mezzanine floors were sketched, and there were other combinations of these three main ideas. The plans were repeatedly considered by the members of the Republican National Committee and their good and bad points discussed, the committeemen keeping always in view the object of securing a combination which would give as many seats, and as great a convenience to their occupants as possible.

By the process of elimination the number of available plans was after many days and much consideration, brought down to two, and for several days these were carefully pondered. One was finally accepted, and Architect Brown was directed to make another set of drawings and to mail a copy to each member of the subcommittee of the national committee on convention arrangements. This made a total of fifteen plans prepared and sent out from the office of the architect besides the drawings kept for his own use.

After this came the work of elaborating and filling in the details, and this involved infinitely more labor than the drawings of the original plans. These last sketches were necessarily made to scale, and involved moreover the location

of every seat in the convention hall, and the giving to each chair its section number and row letter.

An idea of the labor involved in this last item alone, may be had when it is stated that the mere numbering of the seats in the convention hall — the placing of figures in the little squares which designate the location of the chairs — is a full week's work for one man, and he must be a rapid penman at that. The uninitiated person gazing at that sheet of paper would imagine that he could easily number those seats in a single day and without especial exertion, but he would be greatly mistaken. The task would probably take him two weeks and even then the chances are that the ordinary man would have it full of errors.

In arranging the hall the first thing to be considered, and the most important, is the location of the speaker's platform. It is from this that all nominating speeches are read; from it the declaration of party principles is made and the results of roll calls are announced. It must be so situated that everything said by the speakers can be heard by as many people as possible. In the coming Republican convention it will be located at the south end of the Coliseum, will project far toward the center, and probably four thousand of the eleven thousand people in the hall will be able to hear what the loudest speaker of the convention will have to say. A small percentage of the remainder may catch fragments of his utterances, but others must content themselves with watching his motions and gathering the key thereto by reading the papers of the next day.

It is a peculiar phase of human vanity that so many people are anxious to place themselves not only where they can see others but where others may have the pleasure of seeing them. There is therefore, in all conventions, a strong demand for seats "on the platform." In order to supply this demand, and also to utilize the full space behind the speaker's desk, there will be in the Republican convention twenty-three rows of seats. In some of these the national committeemen will sit and listen to the proceedings of the convention, and in the majority of the others spectators will sit and try to listen.

Before the speaker's stand there will be 980 chairs for delegates, and in the

rear of these an equal number for the alternates. After much consideration on the part of the national committee it was decided that these seats should be on a level floor and that back of these the entire floor of the Coliseum will be raised in the style of an amphitheater. The construction of this raised floor involves much labor by many hundred men for several days.

To the right and left of the rostrum and in front of the delegates, nineteen rows on each side, are the seats for the newspaper men. In all conventions the location and arrangement of these seats are a terrific problem for the committee on arrangements, and the result is without exception an exasperation to the men who use them. There probably has never yet been held a national convention in which the arrangement committee has not squeezed and crimped the newspaper men in space, and there certainly has never been held a convention in which a large percentage of the newspaper fraternity did not declare that the chief qualifications for membership on the arrangements committee was asininity of an eminent degree. The differences between the two elements are irreconcilable and will so remain during the present imperfect state of human morals.

In arranging the press seats especial accommodations must be made for the large associations upon which so many of the papers of the country depend for their report of the convention proceedings. The associations have their own leased wire systems, their own corps of telegraphers, and have telegraph operating rooms which are entirely distinct from the larger affairs of that kind operated by the Western Union and Postal Telegraph companies. To these associations, speed in the preparation of their report is a paramount issue. They are compelled to have exits, entrances, stairways and aisles of their own in order that their messengers and "copy-boys" may not be delayed by being compelled to pass through the crowds that are always to be found in the aisles and about the convention hall. These separate arrangements always involve much argument, explanations, and frequent conferences on the part of the association representatives with the architect and the committee on arrangements. No matter what has been

done at previous conventions, it is always found necessary at the next one to commence at the beginning and proceed as though this particular convention was the first one ever held.

Architect Brown, with a laudable desire to make things as easy as possible for the working newspaper men, considered for a time the idea of giving to each correspondent a chair with a broad arm, similar to those used in certain restaurants, and on this arm the men were to do their writing, instead of at sloping desks in front of them. That this was not done was due to the fact that Joseph J. Jones, of The Associated Press, objected so strongly to the arrangement that Mr. Brown good-naturedly gave up his idea.

Other details that must be carried out by the architect in charge of the work are: the building of committee rooms, the filling of these with suitable furniture, the construction, according to the latest scientific plans, of an emergency hospital and ward; retiring rooms for the members of the national committee, the sergeant-at-arms and his assistants, and the chief doorkeeper and his horde of helpers. The architect must also see to the numbering of the 11,167 chairs that are to be placed in the convention hall. He must also attend to the carpeting of all aisles to deaden as much noise as possible. The roar created by the ordinary conversation of eleven thousand people is terrific, and with anything like twenty-two thousand feet tramping and shuffling over unprotected flooring, a din would be raised which no human voice could penetrate for more than a few feet.

It is not in the convention hall itself that all of the preparatory work incident to a great convention is performed. For the telegraph companies which maintain large and extensive offices in the building an infinite amount of labor precedes the opening of the convention. Contrary to the general belief a national gathering of this kind is something that the companies would cheerfully avoid if possible. It means for them fully one month's work besides the labor of the convention proper, heavy expense, and no profit. Most people believe that the amount of business handled by telegraph companies at national conventions is so great as to render their receipts a veritable gold mine. The

fact is, however, that no telegraph company has ever emerged from a national convention with a dollar of profit. On the contrary, it is fortunate if it escapes a deficit. For two weeks prior to the date set for the convention the telegraph companies have a force of probably one dozen men busily engaged in stringing wires to the convention hall. If the building is situated on the line of their largest cables the work is simplified and cheapened.

For the Republican convention in this city each telegraph company will string about one hundred wires to the convention hall. This work will require a fortnight. To take them down will require another two weeks, and they will, in the meantime, have been used for less than one week and then not all of the time. In preparing for the convention the telegraph companies receive no allowances from the committee on arrangement and are dependent upon their own resources.

While the telegraph companies are busily engaged in making their arrangements at the hall, the secretaries in their offices are writing to all the large newspapers of the country in the effort to obtain some idea of the amount of matter they expect to file during the convention. This is a matter upon which the newspapers, necessarily, are able to give only the most indefinite information. It is important to the telegraph companies in order that they may adjust their facilities to the demand which they think will be made upon them. The only solution for them has been, however, to provide for a maximum report by every paper, and then when this falls below the provisions made, the companies must stand the loss. If it were possible for them to know in advance just how much matter would be filed, they could determine accurately the number of men necessary to provide for the work. As it is, they are compelled to bring to the convention city a number of telegraphers, sometimes greater, sometimes smaller, but always large, and pay their transportation and expenses while at the convention. If frequent adjournments are taken during the convention these men are idle, and this in itself constitutes a heavy expense.

To illustrate: The St. Louis convention of 1904 had been called to order for its final session and all things were expected to proceed evenly and according to

schedule. The telegraph companies were prepared for an avalanche of matter if it came, but neither they nor anybody else expected it. "Billy" Sheehan, of New York, was standing near the head of the stairway leading from the convention floor down to the office of the Western Union Telegraph Company in the basement. He was handed a telegram which looked like every other yellow paper dispatch that had been received in the convention, but it was different. It was the first faint breath of an approaching political tornado. It was the first drop of a telegraphic deluge. It was the famous "gold telegram" from Alton B. Parker. Sheehan leaped down the stairs and ran for the telegraph office. He sent one message and hundreds of other men followed him on a like mission. Bryan came hastily from his sick bed to make a sensational entrance into the convention and an impassioned appeal to the delegates. The correspondents turned in "copy" by the ream, and for a time the telegraph companies had all they could do to handle the matter rushed upon them. If they had not been prepared to exert their utmost capacity at a moment's notice, they would have been utterly swamped.

When a delegate or an alternate enters the convention wearing a silk and bronze badge, it seems but a trifling matter. The question of badges, however, is one that involves deep thought and extended consideration. Months before the convention is called to order, this subject has been up before the national committee, and incidentally throughout the country the friends of the various candidates are preparing ornate decorations for the breasts of such as will vote for their man. For use in the national convention at Chicago, there were ordered seven thousand badges. To construct these requires eight hundred pennyweights of pure gold; six hundred ounces of gold rolled plate; one and one-quarter miles of silk ribbon, one yard wide, and four and one-half tons of bronze.

The badge of the chairman of the national committee is usually a thing by itself. It frequently is of such gorgeous appearance as might make imperial Caesar groan at the sight of magnificence unattained. Then come the decorations of the members of the committee, and

usually there is little modesty about these. This year the Republican national committee have decided to distinguish themselves by badges which will each contain two-thirds of an ounce of solid gold. This matter is evidently intended by them as a pleasant surprise to the rank and file of delegates, for they have made especial effort to keep the matter quiet. "Solid gold" means anything between eight carats and twenty-four carats fine. The quality generally used in the construction of badges is ten carats fine, which sells in the commercial world for about \$9 per ounce. Assuming that the badges of the committeemen are of this degree of fineness, the members of the national committee will wear upon their chests \$6 worth of gold voted by themselves to themselves for reasons which they themselves best understand.

In arranging for the manufacture of convention badges it is a fact, sad but true, that a percentage of excess of actual requirements is allowed for such delegates and alternates who seek to study the sociology of a great city at short range, and who lose their decorations along with their customary standard of high morality.

To the question of decorations for the interior of the hall the most careful and extended thought is given. The schemes that may be adopted in this regard are so many and so various that it is difficult even to estimate the amount of time and expense necessary to complete it. In the Chicago convention, however, there will be used five hundred flags six feet long, three hundred flags ten feet long, and one hundred flags fifteen feet in length. Around the balconies will be draped a total of six miles of red, white and blue bunting. There will be in addition six eagles, seventeen feet high; fifty-two coats-of-arms five feet high, and four hundred shields bearing the colors of the national flag. In addition to these, a carload of papier-maché will be utilized. These things are always to be placed at the last instant, and their installation is a work of tremendous hurry.

Add to all this story of labor accomplished, the expense, which is usually not far from \$75,000 to \$100,000, and a faint idea may be gathered of what has already been accomplished when the chairman's gavel falls for the first time.

A view of Moret from across the Loing

AN EDDY IN THE STREAM OF MODERN LIFE

THE CHARM AND ROMANCE OF THE LITTLE
FRENCH TOWN, MORET-SUR-LOING

BY
CORA ROCHE HOWLAND

Drawings by Katherine Kimball



FOR him on whom the gaiety of Paris wanes, especially when spring has lost its freshness and the closer air of summer overburdens city streets, there are many places not far from the capital where he may go to take a deeper breath and refresh his mind with delicate enjoyments. But of them all there is none quainter than a little an-

cient town not far from Fontainebleau, a tiny city on the forest's edge, once a king's rural residence but now a quiet harborage of interesting memories, Moret-sur-Loing. The trip is a short one. The train that stops at Fontainebleau will take you there, for the station is next beyond. You can go down in the morning, if you wish, and come back in the afternoon. But why not take your suitcase with you when you go, and stop at the Hôtel de la Palette, there to spend a day or two?

For Moret is worth knowing intimately. A casual view of it, a luncheon or cup of tea at Robinson's beside the river, a walk by the canal where the barges crowd together busily, a bunch of wild-flowers, and a whiff of forest air blown to you from the trees of Fontainebleau, are of themselves worth while. But old streets have a personality, in France peculiarly, where every town with self-respecting pride preserves the independence of ancestral rights. And in Moret-sur-Loing the visitor enjoys the added privilege of finding a distinctive type of town to study. The place is typical of France's forest towns, just as Paris is of Gallic island cities and as Laon is of cities which Gaul built upon her hills.

Moret is very old. Upon her site the Roman station Lathophaum stood, and this name lingered in the neighborhood as late as the ninth century. Meanwhile the town's importance did not lessen. Medieval councils met here. In 1128, historic records show, Louis the Great bought the Château of Moret from Foul-

THE PORTE DE SAMOIS

A Prussian cannon-ball lodged in the stonework is evidence of Prussian occupation in 1870

ques, vicomte de Gâtinais, a natural purchase since the neighborhood was doubly dear to him, associated, as it was, with the memory of his mother, Blanche of Castile, who loved it, and forming, as he did, part of his *cher déserts* wherein he sought relief from cares of state by pleasures of the chase.

The little city was regarded early as a choice possession by the kings. The Seigneurie of Moret, included in the crown's domain, was part of Jeanne de Bourgogne's dowry in 1332, and on August 14, 1429, it was similarly given to Marie d'Anjou, the Queen of France. Jacqueline de Bueil was made by Henry IV. the Countess of Moret and dwelt here in a house that formerly was beautiful, until despoiled in 1826 of its façade which was carried off to Paris to the Cours-la-Reine.

All the landmarks of the place are old. The church, which dominates the ramparts crumbling amid their ivy, and rises loftily, moreover, above the town's gates and its towers, and the capricious waters of the Loing below, seems to point an arrow skyward by its rational Gothic simplicity. One hardly need recall the remoteness of its consecration by Thomas à Becket, who at the time was living as an exile in the Abbey at Pontigny, in order to realize to what degree its natural dig-

FROM PAGE 635

THE POSTERN AT MORET

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A COURTYARD WHERE IN OLDEN DAYS THE HUNTING HOUNDS
WERE KEPT

which gives the scene its color, its warmth of fascination. Its spell, like the bouquet of its red wine of Burgundy, is composed in part of sunshine and of rustic hospitality. So let us wander idly through Moret, piercing gray walls wherever entrance ways entice, and search for such surprises as Wordsworth's golden field of daffodils.

There is a pleasant pathway just outside the ramparts by the river, where brawny washer-women, kneeling on square straw-stuffed *bachots*, beat noisily their linen. Glance up at the walls behind you. Plumed by the foliage of the park above, their heaviness assumes a kindlier aspect, although they yet look stern enough in contrast with the sweetly murmuring river, that, ever young, adds a grimness of severity to the massive stones which even nature's fostering touch can not eliminate. Beyond the stream an old mill intercepts the water's flow. Behind it trees rise splendidly, courtly above the humbler shrubs that cluster at their ~~base~~.

There are many lovely vistas in Moret. Here a haunted mansion, with shrouded windows, draws itself back in retirement behind long files of dark funereal pines. The ancient house by the bridge gate, the one that overhangs the river, satisfying a necessity of the city's crowded space within its walls in earlier days, is exquisite with bloom. It seems to smile down on the fishermen below indulgently. Like

the battlemented towers turned into flower-gardens, it is intimate and restful. Wherever the river winds, indeed, or where the neighboring canal makes its slow way beneath the poplar trees, the views are beautiful. The walk to near-by Ecuelles, where an old church adds a touch of pomp to the landscape's genial pleasantness, leads most attractively in the shade of mighty trees and under that bridge which serves as a support for the big pipes that carry the waters of the Vannes to Paris. And

there's another walk that threads the viaduct, proceeding to St. Mammes, a parish of Moret, placed where the Loing and the Canal join with the Seine.

But if you like the human document

Sketch of the church

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THE CHURCH AT MORET

Seen from the meadows it dominates the town

penny candlestick. Outside the door a group of women sew and gossip. Among them is undoubtedly the widow of the dead man, who was father of her seven children. But which of them she is your interested gaze can not determine. Tomorrow there will be a funeral, and she and all the other women there will be attired in black. But on the following day, maybe, there'll be a wedding — her own — for such is the manner of these river people.

Of a different kind, however, are the

townfolk of Moret. Living on the edge of Burgundy, they have the suave Burgundian virtues and the sound Burgundian health. They are social and fraternal, possessing that inimitable French bonhomie which is the friendly atmosphere of an industrious people that understands equality. Yet they are serious too, trained by their rustic life in simple ways and stirred by forest influences, weird, mysterious, like that of the wild huntsman's horn and the baying of his hounds heard on chill winter's winds.

WHY AN ALASKA-YUKON-PACIFIC EXPOSITION?

BY

WILLIAM THORNTON PROSSER

ITH the beginning of next year's June — and June is the most charming month of all the twelve in the Far North-west — the people of Washington and other western states, assisted by those of Alaska and western British America, will open the Alaska-Yukon-Pacific Exposition at Seattle, and endeavor to show to the world the wealth that lies in their mines of gold and copper, in their forests of fir and cedar, in their fields of grain and their heavily laden orchards, in their fish and in their furs. Ten million dollars will these people, the federal government, eastern states and foreign countries expend in this exhibition — this advertisement of the North and of the West. It is a large sum. Is it worth while, following close on the heels of the Jamestown and Portland, Oregon, exhibitions, and considering the vast number of such undertakings, not all of them successes, in the last few years? Answer the question yourself after you know the "why" of the A.-Y.-P.

Sentiment has been the mainspring of many of the great expositions, but it is only a small factor in this newest of the western enterprises. Chicago commemo-

rated the discovery of America; Portland, the Centennial of the Lewis and Clark expedition of 1805; Jamestown, the founding of the first settlement, while the Centennial of 1876 in Philadelphia marked a hundred years of American national life, but the Seattle exposition of next year is not planned to commemorate anything. Instead, it has a stronger claim to existence and attention, for it will portray, exploit and depict the wonders, possibilities and unassuming achievements of least-known America. It will be an exposition of America for the American people and the world besides.

Just like a big business enterprise the people of Seattle have gone about the making of the Alaska-Yukon-Pacific fair. Seattle, as it has forged ahead among the western cities, has been noted far and wide for the Seattle Spirit, as it has been called, the spirit of doing things. It was this characteristic of the community and of the individuals of early days that made Seattle build a railway of its own, when the Northern Pacific crossed the continent and determined to make Tacoma its western terminus. Seattle refused to be excluded from the benefits of rail transportation.

Seattle's great fire of 1889 served to intensify this spirit of push and enter-

cess and riches up under the Arctic Circle, where the year consists of a day and a night — a night of winter and a day of summer-time, when the sun brings forth vegetation with wondrous speed and the warmth of a temperate zone diffuses itself over all the land. Visitors will learn how Alaska in the last twelve years has produced enough of the yellow metal, piled one above another in \$20 gold-pieces, to reach ten miles upward into the air — twice as high as the Himalaya Mountains — \$1,200 a foot. \$12,500,000 a mile, and totaling more than \$125,000,000. Laid side by side those gold-pieces would reach from New York to Philadelphia.

The Alaska-Yukon-Pacific Exposition hopes to exploit most fully the resources of western British North America. British Columbia, the province that faces the Pacific, has coal areas sufficient to supply the civilized world for a hundred years, and almost every metal known, to say nothing of the finest bodies of timber left standing upon the American continent. Per capita, Holland enjoys the largest trade of any nation on the globe. British Columbia stands second. Only a tenth of the available land is settled upon, and only a small part of that is under cultivation, yet the agricultural and fruit yield is \$4,000,000 a year.

Washington, Oregon and Idaho, with the other western states, will have a variety of resources to show that will be a revelation to those not familiar with the Pacific slope. The timber industry of Washington, when in full blast, employs close to one hundred thousand men, and would fill with lumber and shingles a train of cars reaching two-thirds of the way from New York to San Francisco. Because of the long haul and high freight rates to the eastern market only the best grades of lumber can be shipped, and in the mills and forests are wasted each year enough lumber to fill fifty-three thousand carloads, worth close to \$15,000,000. The value of the annual product is something like \$85,000,000. Washington wheat brings in half that much more a year, while fruit and other produce are worth many millions in addition.

The Alaska-Yukon-Pacific will be a commercial exposition, and perhaps the greatest mission it can accomplish will be in the line of extending America's trade upon the Pacific, the bringing closer together of the shores of the world's greatest ocean. Three transcontinental railways now reach Puget Sound: the Northern Pacific, the Great Northern and the Canadian Pacific, and at least three more will soon touch tidewater at Seattle. The Harriman lines are extending northward

ADMINISTRATION BUILDING

The first of the exposition buildings to be completed

THE MAKING OF TO-MORROW

HOW THE WORLD OF TO-DAY IS PREPARING
FOR THE WORLD OF TO-MORROW

A New Harbor-Guide System

By Malcolm Campbell

SINCE men first "went down to the sea in ships," the greatest dangers have not been upon the open waters, but when approaching shore and even when entering the harbor. For exposed headlands, lights of one sort or another have been used for many hundreds of years; the first form being a simple bonfire, the next a fire of fag-gots in an iron basket on the top of a tower, the next a stationary oil-burning lamp. There has up to the present time been practically no change in the system since the oil lamp, protected by glass panes, was introduced. It has been made to revolve, so as to obtain the "flash" or time lights, and electricity has been utilized, but the principle has remained the same.

On shoals and banks and on lonely headlands the old-style lighthouse serves its purpose well, except in time of heavy fog, and then the fog-horn or bell is of some assistance to the blinded ships, but in narrow and winding entrances to harbors or where a channel is difficult they are almost worthless. An incoming ship must have a pilot thoroughly familiar with the local conditions, and even then the entrance is not always made with safety. Not infrequently vessels have grounded in the harbor of New York.

Now comes forward an inventor with a scheme which apparently will solve all difficulties so far as harbors are concerned, once the ship has picked up the lights which should indicate its entrance. The plan has received the approval of many naval officers and experienced seamen, and while it has not yet been actually tried in a harbor, appears to be in every way practical.

This new system is known as the "subaqueous," and consists, briefly, of a cable

laid upon the bed of the bay or river, and having at suitable intervals short branches to which are attached incandescent lamps fitted with reflectors which will concentrate the light into parallel beams as nearly as possible. The whole system is designed to withstand the pressure and corrosive action of sea water. The lamp and reflector are made sufficiently buoyant so that they will maintain an upright position. As the effect of waves does not extend to a depth exceeding their own height, the outfit will be always in still water. The cable is connected with a shore supply station, and the whole system is at all times controlled from the shore.

With this system in use, an incoming vessel, upon reaching the harbor mouth, would see a brilliant spot of light upon the water and heading toward it, would see another and another stretching on in a line which, if followed, would bring her safely to anchorage. Strangely enough, this system would be even more effective in a fog, as the beams of light, striking upward, would appear almost like pillars of flame.

The value of the "subaqueous" system in time of war is obvious. With all lights out, there could be no danger of an enemy slipping in too close, while, if desired, the pathway in or out could be lighted up for a friendly vessel for so long as she needed the guidance, and then the current might be shut off. The cost of such a simple system is, naturally, far below that of a regular lighthouse equipment.

A particularly important point is the obviously short time which would be required to lay a cable with its lights in a harbor.

A sad possibility in connection with this system is that the advertising man may get hold of an outfit, with the result

from the rocks and scattering it along miles of beach.

In the preparation and curing of Irish moss, fair weather and much sunshine are the principal requisites. When first brought ashore, the plants are washed in salt water, and then spread on the sandy beach to dry and bleach. After twenty-four hours in good weather, they are raked up and again washed, and again spread on the beach to dry. Three washings are usually sufficient for complete cleansing, curing, and bleaching, but as many as seven are sometimes given. After the final washing, the plants are left in the sun, the entire process requiring about two weeks of good weather and sunshine. At the end of this period the plants fade and are white or straw-colored. Two more weeks are then required to sort and prepare the product for shipping.

The moss is sent to market in barrels holding about one hundred pounds, and the first crop is usually shipped in August. The product has a wide distribution in the United States and Canada, part going to druggists and grocers while the larger part is taken by brewers.

In Japan the seaweed industries owe their importance to the great extent of the coast line; to the abundance and variety of the useful seaweeds; and to the ingenuity of the people in putting the different kinds of plants to the most appropriate uses and in utilizing them to the fullest extent. The value of the seaweeds prepared in Japan at the present time exceeds over two million of dollars annually, this sum excluding the values of very large quantities of marine plants which do not enter into commerce but are used locally in the families of the fishermen.

One of the most valuable of the products of seaweeds, comparable to isinglass and used for some of the same purposes, is known to the Japanese as *kanten*. This means "cold weather," having reference to the fact that *kanten* is and can only be made during the cold months, December to February. The *kanten* industry dates back to about 1760. In the early years it was simply a mass of jelly formed by the boiling of the seaweed, but at the present time the entire output is in the more convenient form of sticks and bars.

Kanten is pearly white, shiny, and semi-transparent, having in block form a loose, flaky structure. It is tasteless and odorless. In cold water it swells but does not dissolve, but in boiling water it is readily soluble and on cooling forms a jelly. In Japan *kanten* is used largely for food in the form of jellies, often colored, and as an adjunct to soups, sauces and other dishes. In foreign countries it is employed in a variety of ways, although chiefly in food preparations where a gelatin is required, such as jellies, pastries, candies, and many desserts, in all of which it is superior to animal isinglass. It is one of the most important food products of Japan, while in China it is used as a substitute for edible bird nests.

Many of the seaweeds of Japan are used for making *funori*, a name given to a kind of glue. This product, which is used for stiffening fabrics, is readily converted into a glue or paste by immersion in boiling fresh water, and is extensively used in that form by the Japanese. The principal objects for which it is employed are the glazing and stiffening of fabrics, being commonly used as a starch for clothing. Other purposes are the coating of papers, cementing of walls and tiles, and the decorating of china.

One of the most useful products in medicinal lines, that of iodine, is made from other varieties of seaweed. This industry is assuming such large proportions in Japan that it may be safely said that Japan now supplies a considerable part of this commodity used in the world, supplanting Scotland, which formerly produced most of the iodine extracted from marine plants.

In view of the large consumption of iodine in the United States and the facility with which it may be prepared, in crude form, at many places on the New England coast, it is remarkable that the manufacture of this product has not been undertaken on a large scale. There is undoubtedly a good opportunity to develop a new industry in every section of the United States coasts, and to establish a profitable trade in the various species and preparations of seaweed by increasing the output of the species already sparingly utilized. Every year wagonloads of weed are strewn on farm lands as a fertilizer, which, if the utility of the weed were

gas when burned on the Bunsen burner. A stop-cock was inserted in the gas pipe and the same experiment was carried on the following day. The jar was filled with gas on this occasion but the pressure was not so strong and decreased proportionately on succeeding days until it disappeared altogether.

which it produces, however, is especially valuable for laboratory purposes. Professor David McFarland, who made the analysis, thinks that the supply in the thousands of Kansas cottonwood trees would amount to millions of cubic feet. The difficulty in getting the gas makes the proposition profitless.

PROFESSOR BUSHONG COLLECTING NATURAL GAS FROM A
COTTONWOOD TREE AT LAWRENCE, KANSAS

The following analysis of the gas from the cottonwood is compared with that of two samples from the Kansas field:

Substance	Cottonwood %	Iola gas %	Eudora gas %
Oxygen	1.24	0.23	0.31
Carbon dioxid	7.21	0.00	0.62
Olefines	0.00	0.00	0.00
Carbon monoxid	0.00	0.00	0.00
Methane	60.90	94.50	88.60
Ethane	0.00	0.00	0.00
Hydrogen	0.00	trace	0.00
Nitrogen	30.65	5.08	10.20
Helium	0.00	0.183	0.27

According to the chemistry department, the gas was caused by the center of the tree decaying. A large cottonwood with a hollow center would not probably contain much gas owing to the fact that the gas would escape into the open air through holes which extend to the center of the tree. Commercially, of course, the discovery is valueless. The hot blue flame

The Child Labor Movement

By E. N. Clopper

THE fourth annual convention of the National Child Labor Committee was held in Atlanta, Georgia, from April 2 to 5. The attendance at the mass meetings in the Grand Opera House was not as large as had been hoped for. On the other hand, the attendance at the conferences was quite encouraging, the auditorium being filled at each meeting. Dr. Felix Adler, chairman of the committee, was the presiding officer.

A strong characteristic of the National Child Labor Committee and most encouraging in its effect, is the heterogeneity of religious beliefs represented by its members and the homogeneity of their purposes. Jew and Gentile, Catholic and Protestant, labor together for a common cause, forgetting creed and dogma, over-

looking the divergence of their several views on other matters, working harmoniously toward one object. And yet, while this is a remarkable feature of the child labor movement, it is not by any means distinctive. Other philanthropic and charitable organizations are built upon the same broad principle and all of them are accomplishing more in the particular fields they have entered than could possibly be hoped for if their personnel were limited to the members of any religious body and their efforts confined within the narrow boundaries of their respective creeds. This broadening influence of the great philanthropic movements of to-day is having a powerful effect upon the old spirit of intolerance, and the church itself is being benefited by its participation in this work through the widening of its horizon.

Many of the delegates to the convention from the various states reported progress in child labor legislation during the past year.

Ohio has just enacted an advanced law which forbids the employment of boys under sixteen years of age and of girls under eighteen for more than eight hours a day. Their employment in any gainful occupation after 7 P.M. or before 6 A.M. had already been prohibited.

Kentucky reported the passage of a new law requiring of the local school officials documentary evidence of the age of children about to be employed, instead of the county judges' certificates issued upon the affidavits of parents. This change was made necessary by the large number of children sent to work by unscrupulous parents who committed perjury in making affidavits as to their age for the purpose of securing the employment certificates.

Massachusetts now prohibits the employment in textile mills of all women and also of children under eighteen, between the hours of 6 P.M. and 6 A.M.

In Minnesota the operation of many kinds of dangerous machinery by children under sixteen years of age is now prohibited. Neither may they be employed at work involving the use of acids, paints or white lead. This state also has laid upon the superintendent of schools the burden of proof concerning a child's age.

Missouri has limited the number of hours a child under sixteen may legally be

employed, to nine per day and fifty-four per week, and has fixed upon the hours between 7 A.M. and 7 P.M. as the only ones during which a child under sixteen may labor.

New York now forbids the employment of children under sixteen in factories before 8 A.M. and after 5 P.M. and for more than eight hours in one day or forty-eight hours in one week. Principals of schools now have power to revoke newsboys' licenses at their discretion, and truant officers as well as the police have power to arrest newsboys who violate the law regulating their work.

Iowa, Wisconsin, Florida, Alabama, Wyoming, Vermont, Tennessee, South Carolina, North Carolina, New Jersey, Nebraska, Idaho, Illinois, Maine and Michigan also have enacted child labor laws since January, 1907.

The prohibition of child labor in any state carries with it the necessity for the enactment of compulsory education laws and the establishment of juvenile courts. It has been said that childhood is a time for education and play, not for labor; if the child is not at work he must study, and if his parents neglect his education the state must step in and compel them to perform properly this duty. But the delinquents we have with us always, and it is the province of the juvenile court to deal with them and, in the light of past experience and of modern ideas, awaken and stimulate their sense of right and lead them away from evil influences into a realization of their obligations to society and to themselves.

But most important of all is the provision for adequate enforcement of the law. Without such provision any child labor law is obsolete. Commissioners of labor, inspectors of factories and workshops, and women visitors are the officers now charged by many states to report violations of the law that come under their observation through investigations, and most of them do their duty well. But the problem of providing for the proper enforcement of the law is far from being solved.

Some may think that the child labor movement, while worthy in purpose, advocates a negative policy; that it demands that the child shall not be prematurely employed and rests its case upon the effects of such employment; that it sug-

gests no remedy for the evil. But this is not true.

The National Child Labor Committee stands not only for the abolition of premature employment of children but also for a definite system of industrial education and vocational training that will prepare our children intelligently to take part in the industrial activities of the country and at the same time afford ample instruction in the essential subjects of the common school course and build up and foster a more vigorous boyhood and girlhood. In other words, the committee stands for a strong, intelligent and capable manhood and womanhood for American citizens.

As ninety per cent of the pupils enrolled in our public schools withdraw from the schools before the completion of their courses and go to work, and as the high school curriculum is arranged to meet the requirements for entrance to college, and the common school curriculum is designed to prepare pupils for the high school, the committee feels that too much is being done to promote the pursuit of purely academic studies by the few who can attend high school and college, and not enough to train and educate the children of the workingmen who form the great bulk of the young people of the land.

It recognizes the step in the direction of industrial training that has been taken by the establishment of manual training in the schools, but it declares that the state must go farther and reorganize its system of education upon vocational lines, providing a common beginning for all pupils and a subsequent and early division into vocational schools, of which the purely academic shall be but one branch.

In connection with this reorganization, the committee stands for state pensions

for dependent children, to enable those young people who are obliged by force of circumstances to go to work at an early age, to remain in school until they are physically, mentally and morally fit to take up the burden of life — to secure to them, in a word, their birthright of childhood. Such a system would appeal to both the native and the foreign elements in our population; they would soon see that its product was strong in mind and strong in body and better equipped to make a place for itself in the world than the product of our present system, and then our child labor problem would be practically solved.

The recent convention in Atlanta is the fourth milestone on the road to this goal. Perhaps the most important results of this meeting may be summed up in the words of the general secretary, Mr. Owen R. Lovejoy:

"I should say that the most important results of the Atlanta meeting are, first, a more intimate acquaintance between the northern and southern people interested in this work; second, clearer presentation to our southern friends of the fact that this is not a northern movement attempting to foist our opinions on the South, but a national problem in which all sections meet difficulties; third, a clearer demonstration of the need of adequate factory inspection in order to secure the enforcement of laws; fourth, a clearer statement of this committee's position in relation to the educational movement through which the country is beginning to pass, and a demonstration of the constructive side of our program; fifth, a better elaboration than we have heretofore had of the cost to society of child labor and those industrial expenditures which accompany it, as for example, accidents, inefficient work, etc."



Preventing a Coal Famine

STORAGE facilities have been increased by the anthracite mining companies, within the last five or six years, to an extent that few people outside of the coal business realize. Recently a prominent engineer said that it was a conservative estimate to put the reserve capacity at ten per cent of the annual production. Strikes, interrupting production, were largely responsible for the widespread and rapid construction of plants where fuel can now be accumulated for a "rainy day." A vast outlay of money has been made for the up-to-date, mechanically operated plants which have sprung up on the Atlantic seaboard, in the coal regions, on the Great Lakes and along the lines of railroad. The result of the outlay will be a year-around tranquillity in the coal trade, as far as a fuel famine is concerned.

Coal storage nowadays is a science, like mining itself. It has its own peculiar conditions, its experts, its inventions. No longer is coal dumped from a car by the crude, old-fashioned methods, and loaded into another car in the same crude way. Electricity and steam have come into play here, as nearly everywhere else. The day's work is measured in thousands of tons, the year's in millions.

As anthracite and bituminous coal differ in chemical composition, and in the manner of their mining, so they are very differently stored. As a rule, bituminous coal is stored by the consumer or by some middleman. Anthracite, on the other hand, has to be stored by the producing company. This is due in part to the fluctuation in the demand for the several sizes of the hard coal. Bituminous coal being uniform, not divisible in sizes, the supply can be adapted to the demand with a fair degree of accuracy. But the sizes of anthracite rank as separate commodities, and if the demand for one variety falls off, that variety has to be stored to await a better market. If it were possible to mine just the sort of anthracite desired during a given period, the problem of storage would be simplified. But the production of the various sizes is entirely independent of the market; they have to be taken out of the ground together, and unless they can be readily

stored a healthy state of trade is impossible.

Bituminous coal must be stored in piles not more than thirty-five feet high, to avoid the danger of spontaneous combustion. Anthracite can be stored in much deeper piles. It can be handled with bucket conveyors and other similar implements, on account of its hardness, but it must be so handled that excessive breakage will not result. Breakage is a most important consideration in the anthracite industry, because the smaller the coal the lower the price. Every piece of coal that breaks means so much transferred from a superior to an inferior variety.

There is a coal storage plant that represents the modern state of the science at South Chicago. It has a comfortable capacity of one hundred and twenty-five thousand tons, but this could be stretched under necessity. The structure is four times as large as the Coliseum in Chicago, and larger than the Lake Shore passenger station. It is 540 feet long, 231 feet wide and seventy-two feet high. This plant is covered. In a cold climate anthracite freezes unless it is protected from the weather. When a pile of coal freezes, the feelings that it inspires in the man who has to move it are such as are hard to express in polite language. A God-fearing foreman of an uncovered storage plant once said to his pastor: "I never cuss except when my coal freezes." In regions where it is sure to be cold several months every year, there must of necessity be a roof.

The South Chicago dock replaces one that was burned down in 1906. The new dock is of concrete and steel, and has all the qualifications of a fireproof structure. Its capacity is fifty thousand tons greater than that of the old one. By means of a "box-car loader" four men do the work for which thirty-four were formerly required. Five hoisting towers rise from the wharf, each operating a grab-bucket that holds a ton and a half. A bucket conveyor is so constructed that it carries coal simultaneously in opposite directions, both the top and the bottom lines of buckets being utilized.

Most of the coal is received by lake. It can be stored to await shipment, or it can be put through the big revolving screens

in the screen house, and immediately reloaded into cars. To the eyes of an outsider this car-loading is wonderful. The car is placed on a sort of cradling device, which rocks it as the coal is poured in. This scatters the coal over the entire floor. The loading of a car requires only five or six minutes. As fast as one car is drawn off by pulley cable, another descends from a "hump" by gravity, and is ready to take on its load. When the locomotives arrive they find complete trains waiting for them. This South Chicago storage plant is divided into three parts inside, each part being for one sort of coal. The partitions are movable, so that the sections can be enlarged or made smaller in accordance with the condition of the market.

It is a fact perhaps little known that New York city and some of the vessels in its harbor consume at least one-eighth of the country's total output of anthracite coal. This market in New York means, of course, that the near-by storage facilities must be enormous. The large railway and coal-mining companies all have their tidewater plants where the coal is stored for ultimate delivery in New York. Taking in its facilities everywhere, one company, it is estimated, has a storage capacity of two million tons. Four hundred and eighty thousand tons can be stored by another company at Abrams, Pennsylvania. The capacity of a plant at Ransom, Pennsylvania, in one continuous pile, is put down at three hundred and eighty-three thousand tons. Three hundred and seventy thousand tons can be kept at South Plainfield, New Jersey, without the plant being overtaxed. By means of the modern machinery it is possible to stock fourteen thousand four hundred tons in a day of ten hours. The coal can be reloaded into cars at the rate of ten thousand tons a day.

An immense slanting truss with a chain conveyor, constituting what is known as a "trimmer," is a conspicuous feature of an outdoor coal-storage plant. By the conveyor coal is delivered, to begin with, upon the ground, and then at the ascending apex of the pile. The movable trough bottom of the conveyor makes it easy to change the point at which the load is emptied. This discharge point is kept a little in advance of the apex of the cone,

so that a gentle fall is effected, and breakage is reduced to a minimum. In a reloading conveyor, often running in a tunnel beneath the level of the pile, the coal is carried to the reloading tower. There it is screened before being chuted into the cars for shipment.

At one time or another, every shipper is apt to experience the embarrassment of having to use box cars to transport his coal. To make this operation easy a "box-car loader" has been invented. The one at Ransom has a capacity of twelve cars an hour. The machine consists of an oscillating cradle. When the car is on the cradle the axis of rotation is straight through the middle of the side doors. The door openings are bulkheaded to a height of three feet, and the loading begins. As the coal streams in, the cradle lets one end of the car down, filling that end, and then lets the other end down to be filled in its turn. It would seem that the coal would fall back when the loaded end is tilted up; but it does not, owing to the fact that a sharper angle is required to start coal from rest than to keep moving coal that is already in motion.

Elaborate provisions have to be made for "melting out" anthracite during cold snaps. If snow falls and melts, and then the mercury drops below the freezing point, the limit of bad conditions has been reached. The coal, either in a car or on the pile on the ground, becomes a solid mass, which is more like rock than coal. Extra forces of laborers must be employed to attack the frozen mass with picks, and steam must be applied to loosen the great lumps. When New York was in the grip of its worst cold spell last winter the superintendent of one of the big coal docks on the New Jersey shore said that he had to employ just twice as many workmen as ordinarily. Here the cars that come direct from the mines unload their coal into the scows of New York dealers, and a big surplus is also kept in bins under the tracks. The coal in both the cars and in the bins was frozen.

A boiler plant to supply steam for melting purposes solely was built at this dock some time ago. It is used for only a few days each year—that is, when the coal freezes. When that time comes, the steam is sent over the company's docks and yards in pipes. The men stick the pipes

down into the coal and in this way warm the coal so that it can be easily loosened.

A Step Toward Universal Health

By Frederick W. Coburn

AT a time when the creation of a governmental department of public health is under discussion, the school board of the city of Boston has entered upon a plan of medical supervision of its pupils and teachers which is a step toward realizing the ideal of a society in which the doctor of health will be a more important functionary than the doctor of disease.

Since the opening of the schools for the season of 1907-8 all the one hundred thousand public school children of Boston have been under the constant surveillance of a corps of specialists employed not simply to detect cases of scarlet fever or diphtheria, but to study the physical requirements of classes and individuals, to urge upon teachers and parents right methods of promoting health as well as of preventing and curing disease.

Medical supervision is involved in this plan — something far more comprehensive than the scheme of medical inspection which was inaugurated in Boston, for the first time in any American city, in 1894, and which is now in vogue in a score or more of the larger communities of the United States. Inspection has consisted, for the most part, in the employment of a corps of physicians who visit the schools for the purpose of detecting contagious or infectious diseases. They are not always required even to enter the schoolhouse unless the principal makes the request. The inspector drives through the streets like the ice man; where he sees a card in the window he stops to deliver his advice. Many physician inspectors, to their credit, do much more than is legally exacted. Some do so little that it looks like graft.

Despite its palpable limitations medical inspection has undoubtedly paid for itself. Epidemics are frequently checked through the watchfulness of the inspectors. In some European countries, however, actual daily supervision of the children, by medical men and their assistants who give their entire time to the work, has long been successful. This supervisory plan Boston is the first American city to adopt,

putting into practice ideas which have been advocated for some years past by the man chosen last summer to the newly created position of medical director, Dr. Thomas F. Harrington.

A practicing physician at Lowell, Massachusetts, since his graduation from the Harvard Medical School in 1889, Doctor Harrington began some time ago, as a matter of public spirit, an investigation into the common school curriculum as it is related, or more generally not related at all, to the physical needs of growing children. The results of his studies, as published in medical and educational journals, have become familiar to most educators. A conviction grew out of them to the effect that inspection, as practiced in the schools, is simply one of the near right efforts.

At a meeting of the Boston Medical Library Society in February, 1907, Doctor Harrington presented a paper in which the superiority of medical supervision over medical inspection was definitely proclaimed. More school nurses, fewer physicians, was the gist of his argument. In place of a corps of young practitioners, hired at small compensation to look in at the school door and discern if mumps or measles should have broken out, he set up the ideal of a responsible medical supervisor in charge of every department of school hygiene and athletics, represented in the various wards of the city by nurses, under the direct orders of a head nurse.

There was warrant in experience for much of this plan. The usefulness of the school nurses, for example, had already been proved in a limited way in New York city and in Boston. An intelligent graduate of one of the schools of nursing, Doctor Harrington indicated, can detect children's ailments much better than the teachers, upon whom the responsibility often falls. She assists principals in applying tests, compulsory in all Massachusetts schools, for hearing and eyesight. She consults with the teachers about their own health, a matter of very great concern, for too much of the instruction given in our schools is in the hands of persons of low vitality and a high degree of irritability, and is therefore to be credited to economic loss.

The nurse lives in her district, knows its

gossip, is personally acquainted with the children's parents. That means frequent opportunities tactfully to urge improvements in the breakfast or supper diet, the aëration of sleeping rooms, the conditions of evening study or amusement. Most of the routine work, in short, of supervising the physical life of a considerable group of normally constituted children can be successfully performed by an intelligent woman nurse; the more difficult problems can be referred to the head nurse, who in her turn reports to the medical director. Eventually the abnormal children must be taken care of in ungraded classes at school and be given special attention at home.

The scheme of medical supervision looked good to the Boston school board of five members, under the chairmanship of James J. Storrow. The public school system in the New England capital has recently recovered something of its long-lost prestige; here was a chance to take the lead in a very important direction. The office of medical director already existed. The only necessity was to enlarge its functions, and to secure, if possible, the best man in the United States to fill the place.

To the latter end a letter was sent by the school board to a number of superintendents throughout the country explaining the idea and asking them to name candidates whom they would regard as competent to develop such a work. As the replies came in, it was noticeable that in very many instances the superintendent placed first on his list some physician of his own city; in such cases the second name was almost invariably that of "Dr. Thomas F. Harrington, Lowell, Mass." Practically unanimous recognition of so national a kind led to Doctor Harrington's election in August, 1907. His reputation as author of a monumental history of the Harvard Medical School and of several technical works insured the hearty support of fellow physicians.

The results in the first season of medical supervision in Boston would appear already to justify the expectations of those who have enthusiastically advocated the right of the child, long since supervised as to his penmanship, vocalization and drawing, to have the conditions of his physical life under expert supervision.

The system has been put into practice quietly without friction. Doctor Harrington avoids paternalistic experiments. To encourage parents, often ignorant, sometimes viciously neglectful, to do the right thing by their children is a prime aim.

Under the immediate supervision of Dr. Margaret E. Carley, head nurse, thirty-four district nurses, properly certified as having passed their examinations, are now at work. They like their assignment. They have found themselves regarded with favor by principals and teachers. Their assistance has already resulted in the eyesight tests being better applied than ever before and in greater care being shown in securing proper glasses for the thirty thousand out of ninety-seven thousand children who have been discovered to have defects of vision. The visits paid to children's homes are helping to better domestic conditions. At first there was found now and then among parents a feeling that the nurse had no business to interfere, but tact and good nature usually win. In one recent month 1,710 visits were paid to pupils' homes, though this by no means represents the number of treatments for slight ailments, such as septic fingers, taken care of by the nurse at school. Incident to the calls upon parents many cases of distressing poverty have been found which have furnished the basis of reports to the Associated Charities or other philanthropic organizations.

The ultimate effect of this medical supervision can hardly fail to be far-reaching. Through the oversight exercised by the school management whole generations of children will become accustomed to regard the physician and the nurse not merely as persons to be called in to prescribe sugar pills or administer ether, but as father and sister confessor to be consulted frequently as to principles of right living. Each year the medical supervisor will preach to youthful representatives of all social classes the gospel of the new materialism, of moral and intellectual salvation through physical standardization—a doctrine which, rightly apprehended, in no way should offend the spiritual-minded, however it may be obnoxious to the devotees of applied transcendentalism.



POLITICAL DISSOLVING VIEWS
McCutcheon, in the *Chicago Tribune*

IN THE PRESIDENTIAL PANTRY—
The Favorite Sons (in chorus) - Somebody's taken a
bite out of my pie!

Bartholomew, in the *Minneapolis Journal*

"Ah, there; Caddies; step lively, please"
Bradley, in the *Chicago Daily News*

THE SPIRIT OF 1908
Morris, in the *Spokane Spokesman-Review*

CARTOONING THE PRESIDENTIAL CAMPAIGN

HUMANITY AS THE BANK CLERK SEES IT

BY

ERNEST RUSSELL

the very core interest in the who pass before counters of savings bank lies in the fact that here every activity hinges upon that excessively utilitarian commodity — money, the getting of it, the saving of it, and the spending of it.

Whether you are watching the sad-faced Jew struggling to save the passage money which shall free his family from Russian persecution, or the Greek who has left his beloved Peloponneseus to push a peddler's cart in the city's streets; whether you pause to moralize before the drunken American who is wasting his patrimony, or thrill in sympathy with his brother's efforts for a home, you must at least be conscious that you are standing close to the processes of a nation's growth.

Here you will find the beginning or the end — and sometimes both — of all the really critical concerns which make up the sum of life for that immense aggregation, "the common people"; marriage and birth and death, the grim tragedy of the police court, domestic joys and sorrows, the hazard of new fortunes, the long voyage over-seas to the fatherland and the home-coming, all these are mirrored in the happenings of the day.

In the day long past, when the bank's first signature book was opened to its patrons, the names entered upon it barked back, unfailingly, to the early days of the republic. Soon, however, upon its pages looms the sure reflex of the Celtic invasion, followed by its successors in the vast tide of immigration, French and Germans, Scandinavians and Italians, until, with later installments of Armenians, Greeks and Syrians, we

sweep at last into the deluge of strange appellations which marks the arrival of the Slav.

A comparatively small percentage of this composite of nationalities are investors, pure and simple; the vast majority are wage-earners of the middle and lower classes, stimulated into saving money either for the accomplishment of long-cherished desires or, in a realizing sense of those calamities which hover always over the lives of the poor, seeking to prepare against their coming.

The records of a savings bank are all "human documents," and whether you are pessimistic or optimistic about this country's future, interested in humanity psychologically or sociologically, concerned over theories of thrift, self-help and the uses and abuses of money, or simply entertained by the spectacle of human nature's expression, scarce an hour passes in the bank which does not bring you food for reflection.

A gray-haired woman, short, deep-bosomed, type of the Celtic mother, approaches the counter to draw ("lift," she says) fifteen dollars to purchase freedom for her wayward son. A policeman hovers expectant in the background; about her are other onlookers. The clerk pushes a receipt for the desired amount across the counter, saying, "Sign your name, please." She glances quickly to left and right and queries, "Where?" The clerk frowns and brusquely answers, "On that heavy black line, at the bottom." "Above it or below it?" "On it," replies the clerk. The woman scrutinizes the paper closely. "Me full name?" she asks. "Yes, your full name," answers the clerk. "Before I was married?" "No," rejoins the clerk, somewhat testily, "your name just as it is now, your marriage name." With a sly wink

and an ingratiating smile, she pushes the paper back across the counter unsigned; "I can't wroite," she whispers.

She has no sooner made her cross upon the receipt, and passed along to receive her money at the teller's window, than a different type succeeds her. A Jewish peddler leans over the counter, his little black eyes the only alert features in a fat pudgy face. "Vat bercend you gif?" he demands in a supposedly confidential tone. "Three and a half per cent is our rate," answers the clerk, decisively. "Subbose I leaf you fife hundred tollars, vat bercend, eh?" persists the born bargainer. "Three and a half is our rate, sir," repeats the clerk. "Und uf I puds in one thousand tollars, you gif me four bercend, yes?" "No, we don't," answers the clerk, "we pay you three and a half, just as I told you, sir." "Vell, I puds in der tousand," returns the imperturbable one — and produces the money.

A tall, gaunt individual of some seventy years who, standing a bit apart from the group at the counter, has gazed impassively at these minor incidents of the day's work, moves slowly forward to open an account with the receiving teller. His deposit is small and evidently his world is one of poverty; a ragged "muffler" partly screens the soiled front of a cheap shirt, and well-worn boots protrude below his long ulster; yet he wears an air of quiet gentility withal, and the name written upon the signature book harks back to the day of New York's old-time aristocracy. The clerk scans the signature and, raising his eyes from the book, remarks, "That was a rather famous name in America thirty years ago; I wonder if you are connected with a gentleman of the same name who figured prominently in the prosecution of the Tweed ring in New York?" A vague smile flits over the old man's features as he remarks, "Well, I suppose I *was* better known in New York in those days than I would be now." He takes up the proffered pass-book, silently makes his way out of the bank, and the clerk learns later that this man, in very truth "The Man who Was," now leads the life of a recluse on a small suburban farm.

A moment later and the huge bronze portals of the bank open to admit a laughing, jabbering, gesticulating sex-

tette of Syrians. Leading the way are two young women in bright-colored dresses, bareheaded, black-haired, in their cheeks a rich red tinge burning its way through the olive skin, and great moist eyes that irresistibly bring to mind "The Thousand and One Tales" and the glamour of the East. With them are three young men, equally black as to hair, equally white as to teeth and equally jubilant in manner. Last appears the long-robed priest with the queer headgear, for all the world like a section of stovepipe with a lid on the top. The occasion is evidently a gala one, the prelude to a marriage, and their mission the settlement upon the bride-elect of the marriage portion, the sweat-won savings of her lord-to-be. When this is duly accomplished, amid much laughter and many words, the noisy crew swarm again through the entrance and are gone.

An old stoop-shouldered Irishman, of the type who immigrated in the forties, sidles diffidently across the tiled floor of the bank and presents to a clerk a pass-book showing but a single deposit of \$800, made twenty years ago. No entry other than the original deposit mars the immaculate surface of the page. "Do ye pay inthrest?" timidly inquires the old man. "We do," responds the clerk. "Well thin, I'll take whatever is comin' — I'm wantin' a bit o' spindin' money." When he is shown that his prospective "spindin' money," the interest alone of his little hoard, amounts to \$1,227.11, his small eyes blink rapidly at the wonder of it all and he can scarcely comprehend his good fortune.

Here, in the bank, scarcely a day passes that does not witness some incident which, touched by the genius of a De Maupassant or a Stevenson, would live on in literature, eloquent and imperishable.

A widow, in straitened circumstances, makes her way to the bank, week in and week out, through years of increasing infirmity, depositing from her meager wage the utmost she can spare. It is never over three dollars and it is never less than one, but it is unfailing in its regularity. Eventually the legal limit of a thousand dollars is reached and she is informed that she must seek another bank for her future savings. She then tells the clerk she wishes the whole amount to her

credit transferred to the name of her son. He is a railroad man, she goes on to say, and she hasn't seen him for a twelve month—but he is her only child and she wishes him to know when she is gone how she has loved him and labored for him. Despite the alternatives offered by the clerk, in the end it is done as she wishes, and the old woman goes her way, contented.

Three years swing into the past. The old widow has died in poverty and alone, and has been buried at the expense of the city. One day the son appears at the bank, proves claim to the account—and in three short months of debauchery that memorial of a mother's faith and devotion has been scattered to the four winds!

Not often, however, be it said to the credit of human hearts, is the tale one of ingratitude and wasted effort. Frequently a lifetime's self-denial springs to fruition in the salvage of well-nigh hopeless fortunes.

Within a few months it fell within the writer's knowledge that a flagman, forty years in service at a railroad crossing at ten dollars a week, had died, leaving \$25,000 of savings to make easier the lot of a decrepit widow and an orphaned nephew, stricken with paralysis.

If we pay a certain homage to this steadfast loyalty to an ideal, tinctured though it be with miserliness, what should be our attitude toward a thrift made possible only by the tender sensibilities of the ever gullible public?

An old hag who, woe-begone and supplicant, for years has knelt on the sidewalks of the city before a wheezy organ, entered the savings bank, not a year ago, to place in the writer's hands for safe keeping eight pass-books showing an accumulated hoard of \$12,000, and this case differs only in degree from a score of others within the knowledge of a single individual.

It has been well said that the habit of saving is a personal, rather than a national, trait. Yet it is difficult, even in the savings bank, to accept this view, so obvious is the association of certain nationalities with the practice of laying by, regularly and constantly, a relatively large proportion of the individual income.

We see, in the long line of depositors at the bank, the Italians, Armenians,

Poles, Finns, Syrians, Greeks and Hebrews of the present day far outnumbering not only the Americans, but even the Swedes and the Irish, and we jump to the conclusion that only the first-named nationalities are the thrifty ones, forgetting that, in reality, it is the others which have brought the savings bank to its present prominence and value among financial institutions. Environment, and the terms upon which life is given, enter also into the solution of this problem. The Americans of a hundred years ago were plunged into life in a new country where homes were to be built and the way to prosperity won through labor, frugality and thrift; and the savings bank followed almost as a first demand of such an existence. It was a similar set of conditions which confronted the immigrant Irish and Swedes of later years and caused them, in their turn, to follow in the path of their forerunners; and equally is it the case of the other peoples who, even more recently, are coming among us.

Emancipated from oppression, presented with opportunity, stimulated by the very obstacle of poverty, these newly arrived aliens are, in the very nature of things, destined to make use of the savings bank before they embark on larger enterprises or become infected with that freedom in the use of money so characteristic of our time and civilization. But even as the second generation of the American, the Swede, and the Celt are not the money-savers that their fathers were, it is easy to believe that fifty years hence the descendants of our Italian and Syrian, and even the Hebrew depositors of to-day, will suffer in a similar comparison.

All savings banks have their "freak" depositors—strange creatures some of them are, too—who add their touch of eccentricity to a background of daily happenings in itself already far from colorless. Many of these people are undoubtedly afflicted with the milder forms of insanity, and deserving of all sympathy, while others are simply amusing.

A type frequently met with is the one who enters the bank with pompous air and after inquiring the maximum amount accepted, makes an insignificant deposit, and talks rather loudly of the amount he intends to deposit "next week." Per-

haps in the course of a month or so he has deposited a hundred dollars—and this is as far as he gets. In fact the hundred dollars is all he possesses, and it has previously been on deposit in another bank. He simply draws, weekly, from one bank, to deposit in another, appearing in the course of the year in half a dozen banks of the city, basking in the glow of his exaggerated ego—with his far-traveled and much-counted little capital—as a factor in savings bank finance!

Although a savings bank, unlike a national bank, makes no demand of its patrons in the way of standing and general character, it sees very little of the city's criminal life. Men and women of the underworld are at best spasmodic savers, and being perpetual migrants, the accounts of even the more thriftily inclined are always on the move. Only in some faint-hearted struggle to rise above their low estate, or through some sudden turn of luck, do the gambler and the woman of the street seek the bank and it is seldom for long.

Neither is the savings bank operated upon to any extent by the professional swindlers, check raisers, forgers and such other gentry of criminal inclinations as the national bank is ever on guard against. Certain methods, typical of the savings bank, such as the requirement of the pass-book, the elaborate identification system and "savings bank conservatism," its essential removal from the hurry and hazard of the business world are its chief safeguards in this matter.

Forgery, when it occurs, is either innocent of criminal intent or clumsily performed. It is not at all uncommon for an illiterate depositor, ill and unable to come to the bank, to appoint a more proficient member of the household as signer and bearer of the necessary order for payment. When this is presented at the bank with the pass-book, the attendant circumstances are almost invariable. The clerk compares the signature on the order with the signature on file and discovers the forgery. His first inquiry addressed to the youthful but composed presenter is:

"Who signed this order?"

"Me mudder," is the ready response.

"Did you see her sign it?"

"Sure, I did."

"Your mother can't write."

"Well, she told me to write it."

Severely admonished against the sin of lying and the futility of attempting to collect money on a forged order, the future American citizen goes whistling from the bank to secure a more easily negotiable document.

Forgeries with criminal intent, appearing immediately after the death of a depositor, and before word of the event has reached the bank, are usually the work of one who has planned adroitly for some time beforehand. With a carefully forged physician's signature as witness, and a well-simulated feebleness in the depositor's handwriting, these are really dangerous, but as corroborative evidence is usually required, few reach the consummation of their maker's hopes.

The most artistic bit of feminine work along this line which ever came within the writer's knowledge was concocted in a small country town in Massachusetts. One day the pass-book of an elderly woman, with an order for one hundred and ninety-eight dollars and ninety-five cents, was presented at the bank. The signature to the order was excellent, and the money was paid to the woman who appeared with it. Shortly after, the depositor notified the bank in person that her pass-book was lost, and was told of the recent withdrawal. When the order was shown her she repudiated the signature, pointed out that the alleged witness to it had been dead for years, and demanded that the bank make good her loss. This the bank refused to do.

The police were called into the case, and eventually a neighbor of the depositor was arrested, tried twice on the charge of forgery, and acquitted on the testimony of handwriting experts that the signature to the order was genuine. Thus the bank was absolved from blame, and the inference made clear that the two old cronies had collaborated on an order which should look "shaky" upon investigation, but which being signed correctly should insure payment and prevent the conviction of the presenter! The adroitness of the scheme lay in the hope to secure two payments from the bank—one to the presenter and one to the alleged defrauded depositor. Such clever generalship, hidden though it was in the humdrum exist-

ence of a country hamlet, deserved a better field of usefulness, and greater success than followed this attempt to "work" the bank.

One often hears the vocation of the bank clerk alluded to as a monotonous affair of ledgers, figures and dull routine.

This is a misconception. Unrealized by the casual observer, there is in its varied incident, its contrasted notes of tragedy and comedy, its constant reflection of the interests and activities of humanity, an allurements which holds the man behind the counter happy in his calling.

MODERN WATER FEUDS IN THE WEST

BY

WALTER V. WOHLKE

ERE was a break in the wall of soft, green pepper trees. It led from the smooth, black road, black from the asphaltlike oil that covered its surface, to a trail, a footpath shaded

on one side by the dark, rich foliage of orange trees; on the other side a grayish-green sea of olive trees hedged in the path. A row of tall, unkempt eucalyptus trees marked the end of the olives and the beginning of a vineyard. Between the two water was singing its cool song.

"Be careful how you make that jump," said the rancher. "That water has a pedigree. You might have a lawsuit on your hand if you fell in. Every drop of it is counted, indexed, registered and marked Exhibit A. They have traced and tagged every bucketful from the time it left the clouds, fell on the mountains over there, percolated into the soil and was yanked out again by a gasoline pump."

The leap across the ditch was made with care. Not one drop was spilled by the splash of a falling pebble.

"Let's defy Fate and take a drink," suggested the rancher. We drank.

"Now then," he resumed, wiping the excess moisture from his sandy mustache, "you've had an experience worth remembering. You've jumped across, and you've drunk your fill out of a ditch that has cost \$60,000 in lawyers' fees and court costs so far, and that's only the beginning. By the time the ownership of that little ditch is settled, it will have swallowed \$40,000 more."

No, that ditch did not contain the waters from the Fountain of Youth. It was just plain, common, everyday water, running along quietly and contentedly, as water does 'most everywhere. There was not an overabundance of it. Just a ditch scarcely five feet wide and about two feet deep. Yet for eight years a fierce legal war has been waged over this insignificant rivulet, carried from court to court, fought more stubbornly the longer the contest lasted, with retainers, costs and expenses piling up higher every month.

Fierce though the battle was, the defendants, whose rights to the ditch were attacked, knew from the very beginning of the litigation that the issue was against them, that ultimately the final decision would favor their opponents, the plaintiffs. Nevertheless they kept on demurring, rebutting, objecting, appealing, shaming even the attorneys for the San Francisco grafters by their resourcefulness in staving off a final verdict. Eight years they have continued this expensive dilatory game, and to-day the prospects of a speedy determination of the case are as remote as ever. And because of this absent prospect the defendants rejoice because, in their case, it pays to litigate; the money they invest to make the mills of justice grind slowly brings them Standard-oil dividends while the case goes on and on — and the lawyers on both sides smile.

The little ditch in question makes large, golden, navel oranges grow on trees that cover several hundred acres of land in the vicinity of Riverside, California. In such abundance do the golden balls cover the

trees that the returns average \$250 a year per acre, and the four hundred acres watered by the litigation ditch produce crops worth \$80,000 to \$100,000 annually. Without the little ditch these acres would be barren, the trees would bear no fruit, would shrivel up and wither under the glaring summer sun. Therefore the Riversiders fight tooth and nail for that \$100,000-a-year ditch that rises "over the hill" in an adjoining district. But the residents of that district also have land that will produce oranges at the rate of \$250 an acre, and they say emphatically that the Riversiders have no right to take their water that they themselves need badly. Though the state law supports their contention, the Riversiders defy their neighbors and the water keeps on flowing upon Riverside acres. It pays to spend \$5,000 a year for water litigation and to reap \$100,000 for the use of the water.

That is only one of the innumerable "water cases" that are being fought to-day in the courts of the West. The supply of water is limited in the arid region that covers one-third of the United States. Because of this limited supply of water only two per cent of the land surface of ten western states and territories is now under cultivation. Over six hundred million acres of the nation's domain are still waiting for the plow of the settler. There is no lack of prospective settlers, for the fame of western irrigated land has spread far and wide, but unfortunately the ten-inch rainfall of the arid region, when stored in reservoirs, will supply moisture for only seventy-five to a hundred million acres. At present only about twenty-five million acres are "under the ditch," but this area exceeds in productiveness thrice the amount of land in the Middle West.

Since human nature does not change materially in a dry climate, it is natural that each settler should strive to obtain as much of the wealth-giving water as possible. Consequently, wherever the ditch has transformed a tiny piece of the parched region into a fruit garden, the water feud is raging, its bitterness and fierceness varying with the returns obtained from the application of the water to the fertile soil. The warmer the climate, the less water is to be had, but the larger the crops, therefore the water feuds

increase in bitterness in the southernmost portions of the arid West. But no longer is the roar of the revolver heard in the land. The good old times when cattleman and homesteader settled the dispute over a water front with cold lead and sharp steel, are gone. The forty-five caliber Colt has been supplanted by the bulky brief, the taunts preceding the battle have degenerated into long-winded arguments, and instead of a coroner's jury a dignified judge renders the final decision.

The old doctrine of riparian rights is the cause of nine-tenths of the water feuds in the irrigation country. Together with the old English common law this doctrine was brought by the first settlers into a region where it had no business to be, and to-day, though it has been modified and mitigated, it supports an army of lawyers and is a stumbling block that retards speedy development. The doctrine of riparian rights gives the settler title to the flow up to the center of the water course upon which his land borders. Though he may not need all the water at his disposal to irrigate his land, he may take possession of it and prevent later settlers from using this excess without his permission. He need not use his water at all; he can sell it to those who came too late to participate in the grab.

Many a fortune has been made in the West out of the sale of these water rights, and fortunate are those who hung on, for the prices are rising constantly. Five years ago the city of San Bernardino, California, purchased one hundred inches of water (one million two hundred thousand gallons daily) from a citizen of a neighboring town who had appropriated the largest portion of a mountain brook in the pioneer times. The sum of \$40,000 was paid for the water, or rather for the right to take the water out of the stream. A year after the purchase the city was offered \$60,000 for this water right, and now it could not be bought for \$100,000.

Only a few states in the West, notably Wyoming and Kansas, have stopped water feuds and speculation in water by abolishing the riparian rights. In these states the water is apportioned among the farmers of the various districts in accordance with the amount of land to be cultivated, the only logical basis for a distribution of the water.

The passage of the Reclamation Act and the entrance of the United States Government into the irrigation business marked an era in the development history of the West. But the impounding and distribution under government control of the surface flow of western rivers did not solve the one great problem that is to-day confronting the most densely settled and most productive irrigation districts: the problem of the subsurface water and its distribution.

It seems reasonable, and it is reasonable and just in those parts of the country where water abounds, that the owner of a tract of land should have the right to drill wells, pump the water lying beneath his soil and do with it as he sees fit, just as he would dispose of the product of an oil well. For many years the western settler exercised this right; the farming population then was even less than it is to-day, the surface flow of the streams was abundant for nearly all needs and the subterranean reservoirs were scarcely tapped. Conditions have changed; now the available surface flow is all appropriated, the cultivated area is spreading rapidly and the level of the underground basins is falling continually. No longer may the farmer raise this water to the surface and do with it as he pleases. Water is precious — and rare; all the farmer's neighbors need it, even if he does not, so he is enjoined from letting it run to waste. He must not even create artificial ponds to attract ducks and other wild fowl, for every gallon thus taken might be needed on the fields next door. He may still sell his water, but only within the limits of the watershed that feeds his well. Most of the arid states forbid the transportation of water from one watershed into another district so long as the originating watershed needs the flow, and this makeshift substitute of an equitable distribution of all water on the basis of the land to be reclaimed has led to confusion and innumerable lawsuits.

The San Bernardino Valley, in the southern part of California, is perhaps the most densely populated rural district west of the Missouri River. The citrus and deciduous fruit groves, the melon and berry patches, alfalfa fields and vegetable gardens, support thousands of small

ranches and dozens of thriving towns. Among these is Cucamonga, a hamlet nestling in the foothills and surrounded by extensive citrus groves and vineyards. Sixteen miles to the west, separated from Cucamonga only by a slight rise in the floor of the valley, lies the town of Ontario. In both places the growers of oranges and grapes need water badly when the sun settles down to work for the summer, when day after day shimmering heat waves rise from the dusty, parched, reddish soil, when the ground cakes and cracks and the populace flees to the mountains or the shore. Then the gurgling stream in the cement-lined ditches must die, must choke in the broad, muddy furrows between the trees, that the fruit may live and become juicy.

Like the Riversiders, the Ontarians lusted for greater gains, to be had by planting more trees. But the entire available water supply was barely sufficient for the producing groves, so they cast covetous eyes upon the water supply of their Cucamonga neighbors. Their covetousness soon took the form of action. Several acres of land known to be water-bearing were bought in the Cucamonga district, wells drilled, pumping machinery installed and a pipe-line laid to Ontario. When the first chuck-chuck of the gasoline engine was heard in the land and the first trickle of water entered the pipe to grow oranges sixteen miles away, they notified their lawyers to prepare the briefs and begin to examine authorities.

They were not kept in suspense long. When the Ontario pump began its work, the wells and springs in the vicinity showed signs of failing health for the first time in the history of the settlement. Day by day they grew weaker, lost in volume or vanished altogether until of the ninety-nine inches of water (1,723,040 gallons in twenty-four hours) usually furnished by them only one lonely inch remained. At this stage of the proceedings the Cucamongans peered down the Ontario wells in their domain, followed the pipe-line to the Ontario acres, saw water pouring from said pipe-line and at once jumped to the conclusion that it was their water, that their missing ninety-eight inches were growing oranges in Ontario instead of producing grapes in Cucamonga. Forthwith they began suit for the recovery of

the water, demanded damages to the extent of a quarter of a million dollars and prayed for immediate relief. Before that relief comes, many a crop will ripen in Ontario with the aid of the water from Cucamonga.

Water feuds and water thefts in the arid region are not always carried on for profit merely; often the very existence, the life of the contending parties, is at stake. Not long ago a hearing lasting two months took place in the Superior Court of Los Angeles county. The transcript of the evidence filled a quarto volume of three thousand five hundred printed pages. The subject matter of the controversy was water, of course, water valued at \$1,000,000. The total quantity involved, one thousand inches, or seventeen million gallons daily, could be easily handled by one of Chicago's smaller pumping plants; the stockyard mains of the Windy City, so the muckrakers inform us, used to be robbed of almost this quantity every day. But more than \$1,000,000 was at stake in this suit. The loss of the water meant absolute ruin to a large body of prosperous farmers, the plaintiffs in the litigation, whose crops depended upon the supply; to the defendant, the city of Los Angeles, the loss of the thousand inches spelled arrested growth, insufficient fire protection, dusty streets, dying lawns, flowers and shrubs, neglected parks and possible epidemics.

The complaint of the farmers told the old story: the defendant city had entered upon the plaintiffs' watershed, a valley separated from the municipality by a chain of hills, had built infiltration galleries in the subterranean gravel beds of the valley and conducted the water thus obtained to its mains, lowering the level of the valley's underground reservoir to such an extent that the wells of the plaintiffs were running dry. But, the city claims, the gravel beds of the valley represent but the subsurface flow of the Los Angeles River, on the banks of which the pueblo of Los Angeles was built long before the valley was settled. Therefore the city, by virtue of its riparian rights, is justified in tapping this underground flow.

In the meantime the suit over the possession of a river that can not be found except by drilling a deep hole into the

ground, is going the usual round of appeals while the city is preparing to procure a more ample supply from a valley on the eastern slope of the Sierra Nevada two hundred and fifty miles to the north. There an entire river could be, and was, bought by the city for a song, compared to prices in the vicinity of Los Angeles. About a million and a quarter was cheerfully paid for this river, and twenty-five millions more will be expended to carry the flow of the river over two deserts and through two mountain ranges to the storage reservoirs whence it will supply a hundred million gallons into the city mains daily. Of course, the settlers in the lonely valley protested when they saw their river take wings and fly to the city, but in vain. Enough water was left them to supply all their needs, and the city had greater need of the surplus than the Owens Valley.

Far better did the Owens Valley ranchers fare than those Kansas farmers whose irrigation ditches ran dry when Colorado awoke to the possibilities presented by the combination of parched, fertile land, a sky cloudless for four months and a torrent rushing from the mountains through the vast stretch of sagebrush and bunch grass. There was money in this combination, and the Colorado ranchers proceeded to extract the money from the soil by diverting the water of the river onto their lands, building canals, ditches and laterals until the entire flow was used up and Kansas went dry. Thereupon the sovereign State of Kansas haled its neighbor to the west before the highest tribunal of the country to answer for the abduction of the river, but Kansas lost. The doctrine of riparian rights in an arid country was upheld.

Strange are the relations established by water in the land where rain is rare and precious. David Moffatt, a Denver financier, is constructing a railroad through the heart of the Rocky Mountains from Colorado's capital to Salt Lake City. He applied to the government for the right to string his tracks through Gore cañon, a mighty chasm deep in the wilderness, hollowed out of granite mountains by a lusty river. Straightaway Los Angeles protested against the granting of the permission. What possible interest could the city have in the disposition of a barren,

precipitous abyss two thousand miles away? Why should it protest against the use of this cleft in the granite for the construction of a railroad that would shorten the distance between the Pacific Coast and the East? Water, of course, is the answer. Gore cañon is one of the best sites for the building of reservoirs that are to preserve the flood waters and regulate the flow of the Colorado River, that irrigation may be carried on extensively and successfully on its lower reaches in California and Arizona. Los Angeles aims to become the center of supply for the population of the Southwest; therefore, whatever will retard the development and settlement of the lower Colorado River valley will hurt the future prospects of Los Angeles; therefore the protest against the relinquishing of Gore cañon as a reservoir site.

Even on the Canadian border the water feud rages. A little river meanders back and forth across the line in Montana. Where the river returns to United States territory after its first excursion to Canada, a reservoir was to be built. Though the river rose this side of the line, the consent of Manitoba was necessary by virtue of the bend extending across the border. Manitoba was willing, but the conditions upon which it was ready to consent were exorbitant. Thereupon the United States engineers simply straightened out the kink reaching into Canadian territory, stopped the river from flowing across the line and built the reservoir without consulting Manitoba further in the matter.

Mexico was more amenable to reason when the regulation of the Rio Grande above El Paso was proposed. An international treaty was negotiated, Mexico was promised a certain proportion of the Rio Grande's flow in consideration of its assent, and to-day work is in progress on the dam that is to make two hundred and fifty thousand desert acres blossom.

Only in one place in the arid Southwest does water interfere in the harvesting of the crop, and that spot is the Salton sink, where once upon a time the New Liverpool Salt Company plowed the shiny, glistening ground and hauled the

bitter crop away to the market. Then the Colorado River ran away and flooded the sink, thereby stopping the salt harvest. The New Liverpool company sued, alleging that the California Development Company, which tapped the Colorado River to obtain water for irrigation, had caused the runaway, and the salt company was awarded \$456,000 damages for its submerged field. That award did not remove the bitter taste of the missing profits, however. Anxiously the salt company watched the surface of the salty sea in the desert for a sign that it would soon dry up and expose the salt again. The sign was not given, and now the salt concern has obtained an injunction temporarily restraining the California Development Company from diverting the usual amount of Colorado River water down its main canal, because this canal is said to continue feeding water to the Salton sink. By this injunction the supply of irrigation water has been shut off in a territory twenty miles long and ten miles wide, and fifteen thousand people are deprived of the light and power formerly derived from the water of the canal. So loud was the howl of protest against the order, so bitter the criticism, that the judge had to cite two of the most vociferous protestants for contempt of court.

Bitter and costly is the warfare over water in the arid region, bitter and costly it will continue to be for many years to come even should the doctrine of riparian rights be wholly abolished and an equitable distribution of the water substituted. The supply is limited; it is exceeded vastly by the area of the land that may be reclaimed by it, and human nature is so constituted that it will not content itself with a portion when more may be had by fighting for an increase.

The only solution of western water troubles lies in the scientific soil culture, commonly called dry farming, by which method the normal rainfall of ten to twelve inches is sufficient to produce almost as bounteous crops as those grown by irrigation. The exhibits at the Dry Farming Congress held in Sacramento, California, proved that this method will eventually solve the vexing problem.

BOOKS AND READING

Some of the Strongest Books of the Month

Biography

Howe: Life and Letters of George Bancroft. A work of absorbing interest, both from the point of view of biography and history. Scribner's, \$4 net.

Palmer: Alice Freeman Palmer. A beautiful and satisfying record of a noble life. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., \$1.50.

History

Reich: History of the Western Nations. A vivid interpretation of social evolution by a writer who dares to criticize accepted views. Macmillan, \$4 net.

Essays

Confessio Medici. A notable presentation of the ideals of the doctor's profession, worthy of John Brown. Macmillan, \$1.25 net.

Humphrey: Over Against Green Peak. A collection of delightful studies in American country life. Holt, \$1.25.

Carman: The Making of Personality. A group of attractive essays on various aspects of human life. Page, \$1.50.

Fiction

Churchill: Mr. Crewe's Career. A capital story of American politics that worthily supplements the author's "Coniston." Macmillan, \$1.50.

Brown: Rose MacLeod. A story of a woman with a temperament that mingles comedy and pathos in a most delightful fashion. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., \$1.50.

Philosophy

Royce: The Philosophy of Loyalty. An untechnical but profound criticism of Pragmatism, as well as a stimulating philosophy of conduct. Macmillan, \$1.50 net.

Science

Metchnikoff: The Prolongation of Life. A remarkable defense for longevity by one of the leading biologists of the time. Putnam's, \$2.50 net.

Out of Doors

Rexford: Four Seasons in a Garden. A book that every man with a yard or a country place will want. Lippincott, \$1.50 net.

Holder: Big Game at Sea. An unusual book about unusual fishing. Outing, \$2 net.

Biography and History

The Life and Letters of George Bancroft. Edited by M. A. De Wolfe Howe. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 2 vol., pp. 294+364. Per set, \$4 net.

The present year will see no more interesting book of biography published than this of Mr. Howe's. Bancroft belonged in a remarkable way to an entire century. Born in 1800, in his youth he called on Goethe; he was minister to England before men now in their sixth decade were born; as a septuagenarian he was minister to Berlin; and he lived to be more than ninety. By virtue of his own abilities and his career as a statesman and historian he was brought

into closest relations with most of the great men of the nineteenth century, and his letters and diary, selections from which compose the largest part of Mr. Howe's work, abound in vivid pictures of men and events. Whoever has known Mr. Bancroft in his monumental history will recognize him in his letters. There is the same sweep of style, the same fervid Americanism. The account of his career as a diplomat is equally vivid, and Mr. Howe has selected his material so judiciously, that it is not difficult to see how far the prestige of the United States in the German and British courts is due to the foundations laid by this first of great American scholars.

As a piece of literary work the two volumes are models of their sort. Occasionally, it is true, we should like a few more details of Mr.

Bancroft's private life, but Mr. Howe has drawn the line wisely between reserve and frankness. Particularly well balanced is his discussion of Mr. Bancroft's position in the field of history.

"The Spirit of Old West Point" (Houghton, Mifflin, \$3 net), by General Morris Schaff, has many claims to distinction. It is a historical document of the critical era of our national life, possessing unusual literary worth and human interest. It is a record, hallowed with the kindliness of time, of the impressions of the boy who entered the great military academy in '58, and of the memories of student life at the outbreak of the civil war. Many of the cadets who figure in the humor and pathos of the narrative became leaders and heroes of the war. The volume is one of the great books that are pervaded not only with the spirit of a place and of a crisis of a nation's life but with the charm and personality of a noble life.

The handbooks of archæology and antiquity, edited by Professor Percy Gardner, of Oxford, and Professor F. W. Kelsey, of the University of Michigan, have already won a place in the field of nontechnical scientific literature. The latest addition to the series is *"Life in Ancient Athens,"* by Professor T. G. Tucker, of the University of Melbourne (Macmillan, \$1.50). The volume is an interesting and readable account of various phases of Greek life, and is, in fact, a study in historical sociology. It is well furnished with illustrations and should prove a very acceptable work of reference for students of the ancient world.

An indispensable book in the office of a news periodical is *"Who's Who in America"* (A. N. Marquis & Co., Chicago, \$4 net). The new edition (1908-9) contains 2,057 biographical sketches in addition to those in the volume last published, making a total of 16,395. It is printed on thin paper, and in spite of its 2,271 pages is an easily handled volume. A new feature of the present edition is a geographical index in which names of persons are grouped according to geographical locality—town, state, country. The editors are to be commended for the plan of the book, which eliminates much inconsequential biographical detail yet gives such a mass of reliable fact.

Social and Political Economics

The Process of Government. A Study of Social Pressures. By Arthur F. Bentley. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1908. Pp. xv+501, \$3 net.

The distinctive point of view of the author is that the social life and the process of government must be explained, not in terms of feelings and ideas, as is usually done, but in terms of social activities. Feelings and ideas are never true social causes, but these latter must be sought in the activities or interests (in the practical sense) of masses or groups of men. The pressure of these group interests upon one another accounts for the whole course of politics and the whole order and evolution of society. In this system the individual disappears altogether, or rather is the mere puppet of his group. In devel-

oping his noteworthy theory Dr. Bentley considers it necessary to demolish the theories of his predecessors, and criticizes severely nearly every sociologist and political scientist, from Spencer down. But the chief weakness of the book is its lack of a thorough knowledge of modern biology and psychology; the author in no way seeks to build his "new" theory (which is not so "new" after all) upon those sciences. Another criticism, hardly less serious, is that his interpretation of social phenomena in terms of group or mass activities is opposed to the tendency of modern science, which seeks to explain aggregates in terms of the minute and individual.

The British City. By Frederic C. Howe, Ph.D. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1907. Pp. xvi+370, \$1.50 net.

Since the publication of Dr. Albert Shaw's *"Municipal Government in Great Britain"* more than a dozen years ago, no American work of importance, dealing with British cities, has appeared until this of Dr. Howe. The book is especially timely because it gives the results of municipal ownership and other municipal activities in British cities during the last dozen years. It is more, however, than a mere study of municipal administration in English and Scotch cities; it is an attempt also to penetrate to the motives and ideals underlying the political life of those communities. The general social conditions of the British city are, therefore, brought into consideration at every stage of the discussion and made to illuminate municipal politics and government. The book's obvious defect is its bias in favor of municipal ownership and of socialism generally. Indeed, the author adopts outright the economic determinism of Marx and his followers to explain the whole process of municipal government.

Any one who wants to get a presentation of up-to-date socialism should read H. G. Wells' *"New Worlds for Old"* (Macmillan, \$1.50). It is not necessary to say that it is well written and interesting. Anything that Mr. Wells does has both these excellences. The strength of the book lies in that it is not thoroughgoing Marxian, but rather that combination of Marxian and British business sagacity which is so conspicuous among the Fabians. Mr. Wells does not consider that socialism means the abolition of all private wealth, and he believes that it is possible to construct a state which will come by evolution rather than by the destruction of existing society. At this point he is, of course, in sympathy with all the more intelligent socialists. It must be confessed that his closing chapters in which he pictures this new state are very attractive. We should like to live in such a state. But can such a practical Utopian socialism as that of Mr. Wells find the people to put it into operation and keep it going after it has been started?

A collection of very important papers is that contained in the *"Proceedings of the American Political Science Association."* They were read at the fourth meeting of the association at Madison, Wisconsin, December 27-31, 1907. Particular attention is to be called to the article by John Barrett on Latin America and the group

of papers dealing with the revision of the statutory law.

There has been a real need of a brief and authoritative history of the economic development of our country. The volume by Professor E. L. Bogart of Princeton, "*Economic History of the United States*" (Longmans, Green & Co., \$1.50), meets this demand admirably. It is one of Longman's commercial text-books, and covers in about five hundred pages the salient points in the development of finance, currency, labor and capital of the United States. It is, however, something more than a mere book of statistics, covering as it does questions of combinations, labor organizations, child labor, and a great many other matters of vital interest.

Such a book as Professor Frederic Jesup Stimson's "*The American Constitution; The National Powers; The Rights of the States; The Liberties of the People*" (Scribner, \$1.25 net) greatly needed to be written. It is the Lowell Institute lectures of last autumn set in book form, preserving the interesting, almost colloquial, language of the lecturer without change. In brief, it gives the most casual reader the opportunity to learn what the rights of the people, the States and the Nation are in this complicated government of ours, and brings home to him the historical continuity of the age-old traditions therein embodied, succinctly and graphically distinguishing between the spirit of the common law—the law derived from immemorial customs among freemen—as against the civil law, handed from superior to inferior as a rule of conduct.

One who has been denied the advantages of thorough theoretical training often stumbles upon truths and half-truths long a part of the world's knowledge with the belief that they are entirely original with him. It is this simple faith that makes George Otis Draper's "*More*" (Little, Brown & Co., \$1 net) such interesting matter for criticism, because the sincerity behind his curious combination of old fallacies and modern hypotheses is unmistakable. He is making, as his sub-title declares, "*A Study of Financial Conditions Now Prevalent*." Remedy he has none, but reactionary notions a plenty.

The subject matter of "*Railway Corporations as Public Servants*" (Macmillan, \$1.50), by Henry S. Haines, was originally delivered to the law students of Boston University. The volume considers at some length the "nature of a public service" and the history of transportation. It is a timely and attractive treatment of such phases of the subject as the benefits accruing to the public through railways, the burdens which railways impose on the public, and federal legislation as affecting railways.

Miscellaneous

As you read along in "*On the Training of Parents*," if you are one, you find yourself wishing that somehow every parent could be induced to read and persuaded to practice the sensible counsels that E. Hamlin Abbott has packed into this small book (Houghton, Mifflin, net \$1). The six short essays abound in plain and reasonable suggestions soundly based on psychological insight as well as on practical observation.

A most unconventional book in the field of education is John Corbin's "*Which College for the Boy?*" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., \$1.50 net), in which is grouped a series of essays dealing with Princeton, Harvard, Michigan, Cornell, Chicago and Wisconsin. Mr. Corbin has evidently done the best he could to get at the facts that lie back of each of his various estimates, and he has in an exceptionally happy way grasped some of the most striking characteristics of each of these institutions. We would commend the book to all those interested in getting at the spirit rather than at the mechanism of university education in America.

Two handsome books, originally published in England for collectors of antiquities, have been brought out in this country by A. C. McLaughlin & Co. For those who have the means to gratify a proclivity for collecting old English furniture the volume "*Old Oak Furniture*," by Fred Roe, offers much advice. To sift the real from the spurious, according to Mr. Roe, is the main thing and the real is all that is worth while. The book contains a chronological classification of the various articles of furniture based upon a personal examination of the surviving examples of famous specimens in England. "*How to Identify Old Chinese Porcelain*," by Mrs. Willoughby Hodgson, is intended for the amateur. It is an introduction to the vast subject of Chinese porcelain and aims to give one a proper appreciation of the art, and courage to grapple with one of the more comprehensive works on the subject. The connoisseur will find reward in its forty plates of splendid specimens from the great collections of England (\$2).

An exceedingly beautiful edition of "*The Hanging of the Crane*" is that published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. (\$2), with illustrations by Arthur Keller and designs by Florence L. Swan. The cover is one of the most beautiful of the recent gift books. The book would make a delightful present for a birthday.

Sport

Charles Frederick Holder is the president of the Tuna Club of Santa Catalina, California, one of the organizations which set the standard for big game fishing in the United States. Mr. Holder has set another standard in fishing matters with his volume "*Big Game at Sea*" (Outing Co., \$2 net). Such a combination of record catches and intensely interesting and well-told yarns is notable. The adventures with rod and reel with the big game fish: the tuna, tarpon, swordfish, shark and sea bass, and the capture of giant devil-fish weighing more than a ton, easily rival for excitement and danger those of big game hunting on land.

"*Favorite Fish and Fishing*" (Outing Co., \$1.25 net), by James A. Henshall, the well-known angler and fish commissioner, is a plea for "historic" angling. It differs from Mr. Holder's book as "casting for trout in a verdure-clad stream" differs from "pursuing leaping tuna in a motor boat." He writes ardently of the black bass, grayling, and trout, the proper tackle and methods of capture. But in the end he concedes to the modern trend of the "gentle art" with a couple of chapters on "strenuous fishing" for tarpon and Florida game fish.

The publication of the volume, "*Airships, Past and Present*" (Van Nostrand, \$3.50 net), by A. Hildebrandt, comes at a time when several significant events herald a new era in the navigation of the air. Successful flight of the heavier-than-air machine has been accomplished, a \$25,000 prize has been offered for the advancement of American aeronautics, and the government has officially recognized the art. Captain Hildebrandt's experience has been gained as instructor and captain in the Prussian Balloon Corps. His book is a review of past achievement in ballooning and a consideration of the problems still before the experimenters.

Fiction

Winston Churchill's new volume, "*Mr. Crewe's Career*," carries one step farther his story of "*Coniston*" (Macmillan, \$1.50). In it Mr. Churchill has drawn upon experience in the field of politics, and has given us the most convincingly human book he has written. It has in it no such outstanding character as Jethro Bass, but to offset this loss it has a number of men and women who are real flesh and blood. More than that, the love story has action in it which holds the reader's attention with an interest born of the story itself.

The First impression made by Elizabeth Robins' "*Come and Find Me*" is that it is too long. The second impression is that it is a book of singular human interest and power. To describe it as a story of Alaska is to do it but scant justice; it is really a story of human motive, particularly of that mysterious attraction which lies in the North. Far more than some of Miss Robins' other work the story has dramatic powers and episodes which lift it quite out of the region of mere subjectivism. The characters are full of real life, and exhibit the complementary crude and hackneyed elements of society most effectively. (The Century Co., \$1.50.)

It seems only a short time ago that Rex Beach produced that exceedingly strong, if somewhat crude story, "*The Spoilers*." In "*The Barrier*" he once more returns to Alaska, but has produced a story of greater unity and power than anything else he has written. Mr. Beach has a singular capacity for mingling sentiment of a genuine romantic sort with a realism that at times merges into the brutal. Both his strength and weakness are present in "*The Barrier*," but it is strength that prevails—an elemental humanity that emerges full of sacrifice and romance. (Harper's, \$1.50.)

William J. Long's latest contribution to his studies of animal life is "*Whose Home is the Wilderness*" (Ginn & Co., \$1.25). Mr. Long's work is too well known to need discussion. For our part, we do not take him scientifically, but as a fiction writer whose heroes are animals rather than men. And as a writer of such he is probably as reliable as any novelist.

The Macmillans are publishing a uniform set of the novels of Bjørnstjerne Bjørnson. They are exceedingly attractive little books, and thus far number eleven. The great Norwegian's position in literature deserves the honor of such a presentation. The work is something better than good pictures. It is that; but it is also literature—virile and absorbing. (Each, \$1.25 net.)

Elizabeth Miller, author of "*The Yoke*" and of other stories of the biblical period, calls her last book "*The City of Delight*" (Bobbs, Merrill, \$1.50) a "love drama of the siege and fall of Jerusalem." It is a sufficiently intense and exciting narrative of love and intrigue, stolen treasure and cross purposes, with just a little light from that last burst of the flame of Jewish patriotism to hold the reader's attention from beginning to end.

Miss Grace Ethelwyn Cody's "*Jacquette, a Sorority Girl*" (Duffield, \$1.25) is an echo of the high school controversy in Chicago. It is told in a most human and admirable manner, showing how a bright young girl from a little city was taken into a high school sorority, and what came of it. The reader will be left in no doubt about the general trend and influence of secret societies on the mind of the youth of both sexes.

It would be difficult to find a collection of better told stories than those Gouverneur Morris has grouped together in his volume, "*The Footprint*" (Charles Scribner's Sons, \$1.50). Dealing with the uncanny things of life, they have enough verisimilitude to make the reader feel that he is not being trifled with. More than that, in several of them there is a strain of healthy humor that balances the mysterious.

A very well written story is Herbert M. Hopkins' "*Priest and Pagan*" (Houghton, Mifflin, \$1.50). We had expected a strong book from the author of "*The Mayor of Warwick*," and the present one quite sustains the expectation. It is an eminently undramatic book, dealing with just the sort of people most of us are. It has few climaxes and very little sentimentality, but it is a compelling study of human character in which the indecision of a dilettante is offset by the genuine struggles of a man with Jewish blood within his veins, at first to deny, and then to be loyal to his descent.

"*Immensee*," the beloved prose idyl of the Germans, by Theodore Storm, has met with a sympathetic translation at the hands of George P. Upton. The volume is a charming example of decorative bookmaking, illustrated in colors by Margaret and Helen Armstrong. (McClurg.)

"*Fennel and Rue*" (Harper's, \$1.50), like all of Mr. Howells' later work, deals with an episode which, in itself, is of small significance—an author becomes interested in a young woman who has written him a deceptive letter. The book's real interest lies in Mr. Howells' treatment of conscience which the situation involves.

No one presents more intimate aspects of the negro problem, or leaves a more distinct impression of its intricacies, than Miss Katharine Evans Blake in "*The Stuff of a Man*" (Bobbs-Merrill, \$1.50). Slow in movement at first, it finally lands the one ardent and intolerant hater of negroes in the position of having accused his own grandson of having colored blood in his veins. The situations are keenly drawn, and the book a worthy one.

Henry Altemus Company have published a little skit in the Anthony Hope style by E. H. Field, "*In Pursuit of Friscilla*." It is a whimsical account of winning a young woman away from a rival by finding a dog that was never lost.

THE CALENDAR OF THE MONTH

United States

Army.—May 8.—The House of Representatives agreed to the conference report on the army appropriation bill, giving increased pay to officers and enlisted men.

Athletics.—May 8.—Swarthmore College abolished football and baseball.

Casualties.—Fire in Chelsea, Mass., renders homeless 10,000 people and destroys property valued at \$7,500,000. Six persons lost their lives and 50 were injured. All of the public buildings burned.

—April 24.—By widespread tornadoes in Mississippi, Louisiana and Alabama, 225 persons were killed and 550 injured; probably 1,000 houses were destroyed.

—April 27.—A cyclone overturned a river steamboat on the St. Francis River near Helena, Ark., and twelve persons were drowned.

—May 3.—In a fire which destroyed the New Aveline hotel at Fort Wayne, Ind., twelve persons lost their lives.

—May 8.—Fire destroyed two business blocks in Atlanta. Loss estimated at \$1,250,000.

Congress.—April 16.—The House passed the naval appropriation bill providing for two 20,000 ton battle-ships; defeating by a vote of 199 to 83 the proposition for four ships advocated by President Roosevelt.

—April 17.—A bill providing that injunctions against enforcement of state laws can be issued only by two out of three federal judges, passed by the Senate.

—April 18.—A resolution empowering President Roosevelt to deal with the case of Venezuela declared by the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations.

—April 21.—Speaker Cannon's resolution providing for an investigation of the alleged paper trust, adopted by the House.

—April 23.—By a vote of 245 to 8 the House adopted the Senate joint resolution authorizing the Attorney-General to file suits against the Oregon & California Railroad Company for the forfeiture of all or part of 2,800,000 acres of land grants in Oregon, to which it is claimed they have forfeited all right by reason of breaches and violations of the Acts making the grants.

—April 27.—President Roosevelt sent message to Congress urging restriction of the use of the federal injunction in order that the rights of labor may be preserved; immediate strengthening of the anti-trust law so that combinations furthering public interest may be permitted to exist. . . . The Senate defeated the proposal for four battle-ships, after a three days' debate.

—May 4.—The House added \$100,000 to the sundry civil appropriation bill, for gauging streams and determining the water supply of the United States.

—May 6.—The Senate passed the Gallinger bill to regulate the employment of child labor in the District of Columbia.

—May 8.—See Army.

—May 11.—By a vote of 128 to sixteen the caucus of the House Republicans voted down all amendments and agreed upon the new Vreeland currency bill.

Deaths.—April 12.—Lieutenant Charles A. L. Totten, millennial forecaster and seer.

—April 29.—Morgan Dix, clergyman and rector of old Trinity Church, New York, since 1859, aged 80.

Education.—May 4.—Benjamin Ide Wheeler, president of the University of California, nominated by the trustees of Columbia University and appointed by the Prussian Minister of Education as Theodore Roosevelt professor in Berlin for the years 1909 and 1910.

Labor.—April 19.—Affiliated labor organizations throughout the country, at the request of Samuel Gompers, President of the American Federation of Labor, passed resolutions demanding of Congress federal legislation to provide relief from recent decisions of the United States Supreme Court.

—April 24.—The executive board of the Western Federation of Miners announced in the official organ of the federation that it had decided "to terminate the services of William D. Haywood as representative of the Western Federation in the field." This action leaves Haywood without employment by the organization.

Local Option.—April 23.—The Supreme Court of Illinois rendered a decision that the township local option law is valid. This ruling has the effect of making "dry" territory in all places within a township which voted "dry" at an election.

—May 1.—In Massachusetts by changes in six cities and thirty-six towns 210 licensed places went out of the liquor business. In Vermont only twenty-seven cities and towns now permit liquor selling. Druggists' licenses to sell liquor abolished in New Hampshire. Worcester, Mass., the largest municipality in the country to have a no-license régime.

—April 27.—Attorney-General Byers at Des Moines, Iowa, ruled that a state permit to issue stock could not be granted because the corporation purposed retailing intoxicating liquors. He declared that under the law there must be individual, not corporate, responsibility.

Negroes.—April 23.—After twenty years of

litigation in which Alton, Ill., juries failed to enforce the law against separation of whites and negroes in the schools, the Supreme Court of Illinois decided for the negroes and denied further trials by jury to the Alton officials in such cases.

Religion.—April 27.—The Young Men's Christian Association of Chicago celebrated fifty years of existence.

—April 28.—The Roman Catholic diocese of New York celebrated its centenary.

Socialists.—May 10.—The Socialist National Convention opened in Chicago.

Philippines

Fire.—May 4.—Antipolo, in the province of Moreng, destroyed by fire, 400 houses burned and hundreds made homeless. The fire was caused by lightning.

Guatemala

Conspiracy.—April 23.—President Cabrera announced that eighteen men, implicated in a plot to assassinate him, had been put to death. A second attempt to kill him was frustrated April 20.

Bolivia

President.—Fernando Guachalia elected president of the republic in succession to Ismael Montes, whose term will expire August 14 next.

British Empire

Cabinet.—April 12.—New cabinet with Mr. Asquith as prime minister organized as follows: Lord Tweedmouth, president of the council; Earl of Crewe, secretary of the colonies; David Lloyd-George, chancellor of the exchequer; Reginald McKenna, first lord of the admiralty; Winston Churchill, president of the board of trade; Walter Runciman, president of the board of education; John Morley remains secretary of state for India, but has been created a viscount and therefore becomes a member of the House of Lords.

—April 24.—The by-election in the northwest division of Manchester unseated Winston Churchill by a majority of 429 votes, the Unionist candidate being elected.

Casualty.—April 25.—Collision between the British cruiser *Gladiator* and the American liner *St. Paul* in a snow storm off the Isle of Wight caused loss of thirty-six lives. All the dead and injured belonged to the war-ship.

Death.—April 22.—Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, late prime minister and Liberal leader, aged 72.

Ireland.—May 8.—By a vote of 201 to seven, the bill repealing the Irish coercion act of 1887 passed its second reading in the House of Commons.

Licensing Bill.—May 4.—The House of Commons passed the second reading of the licensing bill by a majority of 246 and referred it to a committee of the whole house.

National Debt.—May 7.—In presenting the budget to the House of Commons Mr. Asquith said the realized surplus of \$23,630,000 would be largely applied to the reduction of the national debt, which would then stand at the same figure as twenty years ago.

A MESSAGE FROM THE PRESIDENT

Macauley, in the *New York World*

Old Age Pensions.—May 7.—Mr. Asquith announced to the House of Commons that it had been decided to provide pensions out of the national treasury.

Canada

Landslide.—April 26.—Rocks and mud loosened by rains slide down mountain and sweep half the hamlet of Notre Dame de Salette into the Lievre river. At least thirty persons killed.

India

Anti-British Conspiracy.—May 4.—The anti-British conspiracy among Bengal natives in connection with which the police recently made thirty arrests and seized a large number of bombs, becoming more serious. Investigations revealed a plot to kill General Kitchener and other high officials.

Border Conflicts.—April 24.—In a conflict between British forces under Sir James Willcocks and Mohmand tribesmen, the latter were dislodged from their positions after the British had suffered sixty casualties.

—May 3.—Afghans, 13,000 to 20,000 strong, crossed the border and attacked a blockhouse held by a detachment of the Khyber rifles at Landi Kotal.

—May 4.—Major-General Sir James Willcocks attacked the raiders and drove them back over the frontier.

France

Death.—May 8.—Ludovic Halevy, dramatic author and novelist; a member of the French academy.

Turkey.—April 19.—Demand by the government on Turkey for \$2,500 for every day's delay in settling the claim of the French-Heracles Mining Company, the Turkish government having attempted to regain control of coal mines at

Eregli, a town of Asia Minor, 128 miles from Constantinople, in which the French Company is interested to the amount of \$15,000,000.

Spain

Cortes.—April 20.—King Manuel opened the Cortes under a strong guard of cavalry.

—May 6.—King Manuel formally proclaimed sovereign of Portugal and the Portuguese possessions. There was no coronation ceremony as the sovereign never wears the crown, which is consecrated to the country's patron saint.

Italy

Turkey.—April 19.—Preparations made to send the Italian fleet to enforce treaty rights with Turkey. The grievances relate to Italian post-offices in Turkey, interference with the landing of merchandise by Italian steamers at Tripoli and arbitrary action inflicted on Ottoman subjects for selling land and property to Italians at Tripoli.

—April 20.—The Turkish ambassador informed Foreign Minister Tittoni that the Turkish government had consented to the opening of Italian postoffices in Turkey. The other claims have been practically acknowledged by the Porte and the sailing of the Italian fleet was therefore postponed.

German Empire

Scandal.—May 8.—Prince Philip zu Eulenburg arrested on a charge of perjury.

The Baltic and North Seas.—April 23.—The North Sea treaty signed at Berlin by representatives of Germany, Great Britain, France, Holland, Sweden and Denmark. Simultaneously a similar agreement in regard to the Baltic Sea was signed at St. Petersburg by representatives of Russia, Germany, Sweden and Denmark. [See Events.]

War-ship.—April 11.—The armored cruiser *Blucher*, having a displacement of 15,000 tons and costing \$6,915,000, launched at Kiel.

Waterways.—April 12.—Announced that the Bavarian government will spend \$90,000,000 for the construction of great systems of waterways.

Austria-Hungary

Assassination.—April 12.—Stadtholder Count Andreas Potocki, Governor of Galicia, assassinated by a Ruthenian student, Mieraslap Szi-czynski.

Emperor's Jubilee.—May 7.—Emperor Fran-

cis Joseph celebrated the sixtieth anniversary of the beginning of his reign. The German Emperor and Empress, with the heads of the German princely houses, went to Vienna to offer their congratulations.

Denmark

Franchise.—April 14.—The Folkething adopted the government franchise bill giving to women tax-payers the right to vote in communal elections.

Russian Empire

Death.—April 23.—General N. P. Linevich, former commander of the Russian army in Manchuria.

Prisoners Released.—April 28.—By order of the Czar 20,000 political prisoners were released in celebration of Easter.

Royal Marriage.—May 3.—Prince Wilhelm of Sweden, second son of King Gustave, was married at St. Petersburg to Grand Duchess Marie Pavlovna, cousin of the Emperor and daughter of Grand Duke Paul Alexandrovitch.

Chinese Empire

Floods.—April 13.—Floods at Hankow, caused by an unexpected freshet, sunk or wrecked 700 junks and caused the drowning of 2,000 persons.

Persia

Invasion.—April 16.—Russian troops invaded Persian territory near Lenkoran, a port on the Caspian Sea, to punish Kurdish raiders who had attacked the Russian garrison at Belesuvar. The Russians destroyed several villages.

—April 20.—While pursuing Kurdish brigands a Russian expeditionary force was surrounded by a warlike tribe of Persian nomads.

Kurdish Massacres.—April 28.—Reported in parliament that Kurds around Urumiah, in Persian Armenia, had pillaged thirty-six villages and massacred 2,000 persons.

Japan

Casualty.—April 30.—The training cruiser *Matsushima* sunk off the Pescadore Islands as the result of an explosion, and 240 officers and men of the Japanese navy perished.

Royal Marriage.—April 30.—Princess Tsunomiya Masako, eldest daughter of the Emperor, was married to Prince Tsunesia Tsakoda, who is a descendant of a branch of the imperial family.

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THE WORLD TO-DAY

SHAILER MATHEWS, Editor

Contents for January, 1908

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HISTORY WILL REPEAT ITSELF

HERE never was a panic that was not followed by a quiet and orderly resumption of the ordinary routine of affairs. Always in its due season has prosperity followed depression, just as it has forerun and, perhaps, caused it.

For upward of eighteen months prior to October trained observers of business affairs had feared that any unusual development—such as the disclosures of bad banking practices in New York—might precipitate a crash. Since January, 1907, business men have been almost unanimous in saying that prices of nearly everything were too high and that something of a slow-down in business was both necessary and desirable. That slow-down has come; prices have been lowered; bed-rock on which to lay the foundation for another period of prosperity lies before us. Some of the biggest financiers and captains of industry in the country already realize this and are laying their plans accordingly, ready to seize the opportunity of more abundant labor and lowered prices of commodities to carry forward their great projects.

Meanwhile, how can the person of small means profit from this knowledge? First, put your faith in the savings banks. If your surplus after necessary expenses is small you especially need the service of a bank. Nowhere else can you obtain as great safety for your principal and liberality of interest as in the savings bank. To be sure, it is always wise to know what kind of men are managing the bank you use. But the recent crisis has proved that management on the whole to be remarkably efficient and safe.

Second, you are unreasonable if you expect to get another opportunity as favorable as the present for investing. The founder of the famous house of Rothschild—bankers to the kings and queens of Europe—said the secret of success was to "buy cheap and sell dear." High-class stocks and bonds—especially the latter—now offer a greater degree of safety investment than ever before, and prices are, in many cases, the lowest in a decade. Unless you believe the government of the United States must disintegrate and the wealth of our farms be swept into the sea, you need not fear to seize the opportunity now present to buy seasoned investments. Speculation is particularly bad business for men of small means, and even in investments you should go to a reputable investment banker.

FINANCIAL NOTES

Confidence, that all important mental condition necessary to credit, is being restored rapidly throughout this country and Europe.

While all banks are not on a cash basis, many of them are paying out more cash than at any time since the inception of the panic. Moreover, those of the great Middle West are prepared to resume specie payments in full as soon as the New York banks recall their clearing-house certificates.

The \$50,000,000 of Panama Canal bonds were sold as planned; this is just about the amount needed to reimburse the government for expenditures on the canal. Whereas \$100,000,000 of one-year certificates of indebtedness also were to be issued by the government, only \$25,000,000 of them finally were issued and these went only to national banks and were

tained solely for the purpose of securing new bank-note circulation.

The liabilities resulting from commercial failures in November fell to \$17,000,000, as against \$27,000,000 in October.

Men who were most foresighted in discerning a slowing down in business long before the panic, now say the country is about ready to progress again in a sane and orderly manner. James J. Hill says the country needs \$1,000,000,000 of new railroad building every year in order to properly take care of the traffic of the growing nation. E. H. Harriman so far believes that he is going to profit by grasping the opportunity afforded by reduced prices of materials and available labor that he has ordered a resumption of all the construction work which was suspended by the Union Pacific before the panic. In "Speculation," page 50.

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FOR THE HOME

A NEW DEPARTMENT

This department, under the above heading, will be continued regularly as a new feature of THE WORLD TO-DAY. It is designed to be of benefit both to readers and advertisers. For the reader—it will give timely advice on up-to-date plans for home building, furnishing and decorating. For the advertiser—it will call attention to anything new and valuable that may be deemed worthy of special mention. As this department will be run in the advertising section it will not be bound by the ethics governing the editorial columns. We will not hesitate to designate a certain line of goods whether the maker is an advertiser or not. We believe the man who is about to spend good money on his home wants facts and specific advice and not generalities.

Above all, this department will be practical. It will not tell how to make a chair out of an old barrel, or plan for the workingman a modest "cottage" for only \$25,000.00. We shall make the department of real value and invite suggestions from both readers and advertisers.

THE WORLD TO-DAY COMPANY

A FRIENDLY TALK WITH THE MAN WHO IS THINKING OF BUILDING A NEW HOUSE OR REPAIRING AN OLD ONE

NOW is the time to plan to build or make extensive repairs. The price of labor and of materials is likely to be as low as it ever will be for years by the time you are ready to let your contract. To postpone long would be to risk catching prices on the rebound.

If you are to build a house the first step is to make up your mind definitely how much you want to pay; then you will probably pay ten or fifteen per cent more than that sum, if you are like other men, but a definite sum will give your architect something to work by. In choosing an architect choose one with ideas, patience, and good sense. Your wife will have a good many suggestions that are sensible, but not wise, and you yourself will be likely to want to build a good many fireplaces where she wants closets. A good-natured architect is indispensable as an arbiter between interests.

After you have selected an architect, have a friendly talk with him about the requirements in general. Of course, if you have a definite idea of the style of house you want it will help on in the drawing up of plans, but it is not always wise to tell an architect you want a house like somebody's else. Perhaps

when you get such a house it will not quite suit your desires. At the same time there are more admirable plans of houses already prepared born of wide experience. Some of these plans will undoubtedly help you in giving your architect general ideas. Colonial architecture is now in great vogue and we publish an excellent example and plan herewith. After you have chosen your architect and determined on the general style of house, give the architect pretty definite ideas as to the number of rooms you want and other requirements. Don't fail to have two bathrooms on the second floor and one on the third, if you have a third floor. You would better save somewhere else than in plumbing.

Be sure also that you plan for an extra large heating apparatus. It may cost a little more, but it is cheaper in the long run. Just the sort of plant you will choose will depend a good deal on your climate. Be sure to have more than enough radiators and registers, and be sure to do your business with a responsible firm. There is nothing so maddening as a badly installed heating apparatus.

If your scale of expense does not permit such an extent of plumbing or heating as has

(Continued third following page)

suit your own taste—you are the one to be pleased. Hardwood floors have become almost a necessity in the modern house, both for hygienic and esthetic reasons. Such floors can be kept in good condition with the exercise of little care.

An attractive exterior is often made at the cost of the interior, and while it meets with the admiration of the neighbors and passers-by, bear in mind a comfortable, roomy interior is a joy forever to the one most interested.

Above all, your own bedroom should be as large as the plans will admit. Have as many windows in it as possible, and two clothes closets. In planning the windows allow for the arrangement of dresser, dressing-table and bed—this is very important. A little forethought in this direction will obviate many difficulties in artistically furnishing the room.

A bathroom should be as near this room as possible. Too much care and thought cannot be expended upon the comforts and conveniences of the room in which you spend almost one-third of your time.

Gable and tower-rooms generally look more attractive from the outside than from the inside.

A great many complaints are being made these days on account of outside house-paint cracking and scaling, leaving the house unsightly and the building material unprotected. When the paint on a house cracks and scales it must be burned or scraped off before a new coat of paint can be successfully applied, otherwise, the old paint will continue to deteriorate and the new coat is likely to be ruined also.

When paint cracks and scales it is usually due to adulteration. Some substitute for strictly pure white lead has been used that makes the paint inelastic and consequently it will not contract and expand with the weather changes, and cracking is inevitable. The life of paint that cracks and scales terminates with the appearance of the first break in the paint film, therefore, it pays the property-owner to be sure that the paint used on his house is pure and reliable before the work is done.

Unfortunately it is not possible to distinguish adulterated paint merely by looking at it, the same as you would tell milk from water. If you could, there would be less substitutes for pure white lead used. There is, however, a very simple and sure test for pure paint, available to every one at all times. Take an ordinary match, with a

THE WORLD TO-DAY—FOR THE HOME

knife or spatula take a small amount of the white lead from the package, rubbing it thoroughly into the wood of the match just above the head. Hold the match in the left hand and with a lighted match held in the right hand directly under the match on which is spread the lead, you can secure sufficient heat to reduce the paint back to its metallic state provided the white lead is strictly pure. Numerous globules of metallic lead will appear on the burnt match that will necessarily be very small but are easily seen. If the white lead is in the least adulterated it can not be reduced in this or any other way. In addition to its value, this test is a very interesting one to make. This white lead purity test should be made before the lead is mixed with any coloring matter, as over five per cent of any foreign substance would prevent the reduction to the metallic state.

It is always good policy to engage the services of the best practical painter; a man who thoroughly understands mixing and applying paint to fit the peculiar conditions of the surface of your buildings. Paint of different consistency is required for old and new, rough and smooth, hard, soft and porous surfaces. Engage the painter who has successfully painted other houses in your neighborhood; then have a definite agreement with him as to the kind of paint he is going to use, the number of coats and just what the work is going to cost. Then there will be no misunderstanding and the chances are your house will be properly painted and the paint will prove durable and satisfactory.

Agents Wanted

THE WORLD TO-DAY wants a good, bright, young man or woman to act as a permanent agent in every community. Good pay. Send references.

THE WORLD TO-DAY, 67 Wabash Avenue, CHICAGO

EMBOSS YOUR OWN STATIONERY

Send us \$1.00 and we will send you prepaid handsome nickel-plated machine. With it you can emboss your initial on letter heads, envelopes, cards, etc. Money refunded if you are not satisfied. Samples of work on request.

N

Cut shows size and style.
Any initial desired.

NORTON & NYE,

1530 Hartford Building,

CHICAGO.

Agents Wanted.
Write To-Day.

We Believe—

- THAT right living should be the fourth "R" in education.
- THAT home-making should be regarded as a profession.
- THAT health is the duty and business of the individual; illness of the physician.
- THAT most illness results from carelessness, ignorance or intemperance of some kind.
- THAT as many lives are cut short by unhealthful food and diet as through strong drink.
- THAT on the home foundation is built all that is good in state or individual.
- THAT the upbringing of children demands more study than the raising of chickens.
- THAT the spending of money is as important as the earning of the money.
- THAT economy does not mean spending a small amount, but in getting the largest returns for the money expended.
- THAT the home-maker should be as alert to make progress in her life-work as the business or professional man.
- THAT the most profitable, the most interesting study for women is the home, for in it all the issues of life center.
- THAT the study of the home and its problems may be made of no less cultural value than the study of history or literature, and of more immediate value.

—American Home School of Economics

NOTE—If you believe these things send for the illustrated 64-page booklet on "The Profession of Home-Making," which gives details of the home study courses and book, health, food, home planning, economy, children, clothing, etc. For home-makers, teachers, institutions, managers, etc. Address postal or note, A. S. H. E., 634 W. 9th Street, Chicago.

TO ADVERTISERS

WHY NOT TRY OUR NEW HOME DEPARTMENT?

THE WORLD TO-DAY is a home magazine. Over 63% of its entire yearly circulation is mailed direct into the best American homes on paid-in-advance yearly subscriptions. These subscribers have the means to buy, and will welcome suggestions for making their homes more comfortable and attractive.

Advertisements inserted in this section, with reading matter, can not escape attention. This service is without extra cost—there is no increase in rate—and is but another evidence of our policy to co-operate with advertisers and insure for them the greatest possible returns.

The first advertiser to whom we suggested this department immediately gave us an order for twelve pages.

Why not be represented in the February issue? Forms close January 5.

THE WORLD TO-DAY CO., CHICAGO

The American Civic Association

gave life, force and direction to the popular demand for the preservation of Niagara Falls. It is now fully recognized as the guardian of the people's interest in the great cataract, maintaining a constant watch on the power situation.

It originated and is the moving force in the nation-wide effort to restrict the extension of ugliness by having billboards legally taxed, as is other productive property.

It has advanced the children's garden movement, and was instrumental in securing a Congressional appropriation for school gardens in the District of Columbia.

It has secured the enactment of a model street-tree law in Pennsylvania, and is teaching the intelligent care of trees the country over.

It is giving guidance and effective direction to the widespread and rapidly growing movement for the abatement of the smoke nuisance.

It helps in progressive city-making, and is continually arousing and fostering sentiment for civic beauty, for clean streets and home surroundings, for convenient and serviceable parks, for playgrounds—in short, for every form of civic betterment.

Growing Demand for Help

If Niagara is to be permanently preserved, there must be an international agreement. Legislative campaigns must be made in every state to secure laws restricting and taxing billboards. Public sentiment must be further aroused in favor of forest reservations. From every section of the country there come calls for concrete assistance.

More Members Needed

The American Civic Association is a voluntary organization of persons working to make America the most beautiful country in the world. The fine work it has done was accomplished solely with the dues and contributions of members and interested friends. The demands upon it require for it greater resources in membership and more liberal support.

The careful co-ordination and economical execution of its working plans enable the American Civic Association to render invaluable service at small cost, for it is free from cumbersome machinery of organization and in position to do things—to do them speedily, quickly and thoroughly. This is a direct appeal for YOU to become a member. Use the coupon below or a copy of it in remitting.

AMERICAN CIVIC ASSOCIATION, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

J. HORACE MCFARLAND, President
CLINTON ROGERS WOODRUFF, Vice-Pres. and Acting Secretary

WILLIAM B. HOWLAND, Treasurer
ROBERT C. OGDEN, Chairman Advisory Com.

Recent and Forthcoming Literature

The American Civic Association has made many important additions to the authoritative literature of civic endeavor. Other documents of notable value will be published in the early future. Members receive the literature as currently published, without charge. The material they thus obtain in the course of a year in itself is worth a great deal more than the membership fee. Some specimen subjects are as follows:

AMERICAN CIVIC ASSOCIATION, Philadelphia, Pa.

I enclose \$....., and wish to be enrolled as

a.....member of the American Civic Association.

NAME.....

Life Membership,	\$50 or more
Sustaining "	\$10 a year
Club "	\$5 a year
Councillors"	\$5 a year
Annual "	\$3 a year

ADDRESS.....

Billboards and Their Regulations. A Symposium.
Good Roads and Civic Improvement. By D. Ward King.
Improvement of Home Grounds. By Warren H. Manning.
Mosquitos and How to Abate Them. By F. L. Olmsted and H. C. Weeks.
Play and Playgrounds. By Joseph Lee.
Public Comfort Stations. By Frederick L. Ford.
Railroad Improvements. By Mrs. A. E. McCrea.
Recreation Centers. By Graham Romeyn Taylor.
Removal of Overhead Wires. By Frederick L. Ford.
School Gardens. By W. A. Baldwin.
Trees in Cities. By J. Horace McFarland.
The Smoke Nuisance. A Symposium.

CLASSIFIED ADVERTISING

Five words to the line. Minimum space, 4 lines, \$2.50. 10 cents for each additional line.
5% space discount for 8 insertions. 10% discount for 13 insertions.

The standard magazine, with national distribution, reaching a widely scattered but select public, is the ideal medium for classified advertising that is not purely local in character. Your announcement in this Classified Department will reach 300,000 readers monthly. If you have anything to sell or exchange, want to buy anything, or secure help, try this Classified Department. The cost is small. See rate above.

MISCELLANEOUS AND FOR HOME

ARE YOU a high-grade Clerical, Salesman, Executive or Technical man? Write to-day for free list of positions open. Chain of 12 offices covering entire country. Hapgood, 200-201 Broadway, New York.

GENUINE EDISON PHONOGRAPH as advertised by the manufacturers in this magazine, sold on free trial, easy payment. Your name and address on a postal will bring full particulars. LIT BROTHERS, Dept. 68-C, Philadelphia.

BLOODHOUNDS, Foxhounds, Norwegian Bearhounds, Irish Wolfhounds, Registered. Four-cent stamp for catalog. **BOOK-WOOD KENNELS**, Lexington, Ky.

POST CARDS. Send 10 cents for three fine views of General U. S. Grant's birthplace, with a picture of General Grant. **Batavia Post Card Co.**, Box 144, Batavia, Ohio.

BUY DIRECT from largest dealers. We have thousands of Views, Birthday, Leather, Comic, Holiday, Choice Specialties, Albums, etc. Complete catalog and handsome samples 10 cents. **National Post Card Co.**, 321 Logan Bldg., Philadelphia, Pa.

TELEGRAPHY taught at home in the shortest time. The Omnigraph Automatic Transmitter combined with Standard Key and Sounder, sends you telegraph messages at any speed just as an expert would. Five styles, \$1 up. Circular free. **Omnigraph Co.**, 20 D, Cortlandt St., N. Y.

BUTCHER'S BOSTON POLISH is the best finish made for floors and interior woodwork. Not brittle, will not scratch or delace like shellac or varnish. Send for free booklet. For sale by dealers in Paints, Hardware and House Furnishings. The Butcher Polish Co., 215 Atlantic Ave., Boston, Mass.

OUR VACUUM CAP, when used a few minutes each day, draws the blood to the scalp, causing free and normal circulation, which stimulates the hair to a new, healthy growth. Best on trial under guarantee. Write for free particulars. The Modern Vacuum Cap Co., 505 Barclay Bldg., Denver, Colo.

36 SOUVENIR POSTCARDS GIVEN with a 6 months' subscription for \$1.00 to largest and oldest 100-page monthly on COINS, STAMPS, POST CARDS, CURIOUS, MINERALS, PHOTOGRAPHY, RELICS, OLD BOOKS, ETC. Phil. West and Co., Publishers' World, Superior, Neb.

ALEXANDER'S FAMOUS PORK SCRAPPLE—cut into slices and toasted to a crisp brown, makes a most nutritious and appetizing breakfast dish. Made of the choicest meat, and the purest Indian meal and Buckwheat flour. So that you may try this wholesome food, we will send you a trial order of five pounds for only \$1.00, express prepaid cost of Denver, Colo. Send for my book on scrapple and other pork products. **E. W. ALEXANDER**, P. O. Box 2, Oxford, Chester Co., Pa.

MALE AND FEMALE HELP WANTED

BOOKKEEPER, \$1,000; Auditor, \$2,000; Mail Order Manager, \$2,500; Floorwalker, \$1,000; Stenographer, \$1,000; Designer and Engineer, location Germany, \$2,000. Hapgood, 200-201 Broadway, New York.

AGENTS Portraits, Etc. France, Mr. Sheet Pictures, 11, Stencropan, E.C. Views, 1c, 30 days credit. Samples and Catalog Free. Consolidated Portrait Co., 200-W Adams St., Chicago.

AGENTS—\$300 every month selling our wonderful seven-piece Kitchen Set. Send for sworn statement of \$12.00 daily profit, exclusive territory. **Onst Free W. Thomas Mfg. Co.**, 225 F St., Dayton, O.

CIVIL SERVICE EMPLOYERS are paid well for easy work, examinations of all kinds soon. Expert advice, sample questions and booklet L-16, describing positions and telling easiest and quickest way to secure them, free. Write now. **Washington Civil Service School**, Washington, D. C.

CLASSIFIED ADVERTISING enables the small advertiser to test his proposition at a low cost. For \$2.50 you can reach 300,000 readers through THE WORLD TO-DAY.

BUSINESS OPPORTUNITIES

"GREAT OPPORTUNITY"—Selling goods by mail; Improved plan, new catalogue listing high-class merchandise. If you can invest \$25 to \$100, write us, we will show you an easy way. **MILWAUKEE BROS.**, 711 Postfach Bldg., Chicago.

FLORIDA. Let us send booklet of this hill, lake and orange section. **C. Stokes**, Moberly, Florida.

OPPORTUNITIES describing hundreds of positions now open in the United States and some in foreign countries free if you write us to-day stating experience. Hapgood, 200-201 Broadway, New York.

\$1,000 AT DEATH, weekly benefit \$5.00, and our system of registration and identification with black seal wallet, all for \$1.00 per year. Agents wanted. **GERMAN REGISTRY CO.**, 341 N. 7th Street, St. Louis, Mo.

LEARN MUCH AND EARN MORE. We teach Law, Engineering, Oratory, Advertising, Business Correspondence, Story Writing and 150 others. Best school on earth. Small cost. Easy payments. Ask for Catalog B, and name course wanted. **Intercontinental University**, Washington, D. C.

WOULD you invest \$10 monthly to secure a life income from 12,000-acre wheat and stock ranch? Eight miles from Denver. Honest business, large profits. Send for particulars, photos and sample Coupon Bond. **Corona Ranch**, 222 Railroad Bldg., Denver, Colo.

PATENT ATTORNEYS

PATENTS THAT PROTECT. Our three books for inventors mailed on receipt of six cents in stamps. **E. S. & A. B. Long**, Rooms 11 to 13, Pacific Building, Washington, D. C. Established 1889.

"PATENTS THAT MEAN SUCCESS" Do not fail, before making application for a patent, to send for "Guide" and "Honest Advice to Inventors." **William T. Jones**, Patent Lawyer, 112 F Street, N. W. Washington, D. C.

Patents, Trade-Marks. Send for my free book "HOW TO GET THEM." USE YOUR EYES AND BRAIN. Invent something useful. Then send description for my free opinion as to its patentability. Advice free. **Joshua H. H. Potts**, Lawyer, 201 Ninth St., Washington, D. C., 60 Dearborn Street, Chicago, 300 Chestnut St., Philadelphia.

A FIELD FOR SMALL ADVERTISERS

WHEN BUSINESS IS DULL ADVERTISE

The value of the Classified Department is twofold: It serves as a Clearing House for Manifold Wants, Sales or Exchanges; it also offers an opportunity for making, at a nominal cost, an advertising test which may be the means of developing the great advertising success of the future.

Our readers are specially requested to mention THE WORLD TO-DAY when replying to advertisements in this department. This is a reasonable service due not only to us, but to the advertiser. Forms close the first of preceding month.

SEND COPY AT ONCE FOR FEBRUARY ISSUE

THE WORLD TO-DAY, CHICAGO

When writing to Advertisers kindly mention "THE WORLD TO-DAY."

THE WORLD TO-DAY

SHAILER MATHEWS, Editor

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THE WORLD TO-DAY is issued on the twenty-second of the month preceding date and contains a record of the world's progress for the preceding thirty days. Each number contains a cumulative index of the entire volume. Price, 15 cents per copy, \$1.50 per year. Price to Canada, \$2.00. All back numbers can be supplied to complete files. Remittances should be made by money order or bank draft. Changes of address must be received before the fifteenth in order to be effective for the following issue. Address

THE WORLD TO-DAY COMPANY

Eastern Office: 156 Fifth Avenue, New York

67 Wabash Avenue, CHICAGO

AGENTS FOR THE WEST INDIES, TARAPA & CO., 4½ ORISPO STREET, HAVANA, CUBA.

Entered as Second-class Matter June 20, 1902, at the Post Office, Chicago, Illinois, under Act of March 3, 1879.

THE ROMANCE OF

LIFE INSURANCE IS

IN this issue will be found the first of Mr. Graham's Articles on "The Romance of Life Insurance." The series will embrace twelve articles running through the issues of an entire year, and we believe will be one of the most notable ever published.

The query has already been made—"Why are you publishing articles that must in a sense be an advertisement for the insurance business?"

For the simple reason that life insurance is "everybody's problem" and there is no topic that can appeal more strongly to the reading public.

There has been much and deserved criticism of certain officials, but no one questions the soundness of life insurance as a business proposition. Millions of business men are depending upon their life insurance for the future welfare of their families—what can be more commendable and important than to give these policy-holders the information they need for a better understanding of their investment?

As Mr. Graham well states—"If there is one thing more wonderful than the progress of life insurance in America, it is the complacent ignorance of Americans regarding it."

Few ever read their policies and still fewer understand the different forms of insurance. This point is well borne out in the following letter received from the Insurance Commissioner of Tennessee:

"I have for a long time been impressed with the fact that the understanding on the part of the general public of the great question of life insurance was entirely incommensurate with its vast interest therein. There is no contract which a man holds which is more sacred than his insurance contract, and there is none which the average man understands less."

"I congratulate THE WORLD TO-DAY upon the inauguration of this series of articles, and also upon having secured as the writer of this series, one so capable as Mr. Graham."

REAU E. FOLK,

Insurance Commissioner, Nashville, Tenn.

HOW THIS CONCERNS YOU

"The Romance of Life Insurance" will be written for the public. These articles vitally concern YOU. Note the following of the many subjects:

Insurance as protection.
Life insurance alone in offering protective service.
How little it can be obtained for.
Life insurance as provision against old age.
Investment features.
The simple Whole Life policy with its adaptable loan and surrender value privileges.
The Limited Pay Life policy as a mathematical equivalent.
The Endowment policy—a simple statement of what it is, and how to use it.
The element of self-selection.

Joint Life insurance—how it protects the firm or combination.

Some conspicuous examples:

John Wanamaker—why he insures, and what he gains by it.

Wm. C. Whitney—why he did not insure, and what he lost by it.

James J. Hill, and how he beat the game.

Why a rich man should insure—why a poor man.

Why a young man—why a mature man.

The increase for ignorance—the penalty it exacts from the widow and orphan.



SCHOOL DIRECTORY

THE WORLD TO-DAY

CLASSIFIED ADVERTISING

Nine words to the line. Minimum space, 4 lines, \$1.00. 70 cents for each additional line.
5% space discount for 6 insertions. 10% discount for 22 insertions.

The standard magazine, with national distribution, reaching a widely scattered but select public, is the ideal medium for classified advertising that is not purely local in character. Your announcement in this Classified Department will reach 500,000 readers monthly. If you have anything to sell or exchange, want to buy anything, or need help, try this Classified Department. The cost is small. See rate above.

FINANCIAL DEPARTMENT

It is the policy of this Magazine to accept only the highest grade of Financial Advertising. In doing this we are not only protecting our readers but also the advertisers whose announcements appear in this department.



ALTHOUGH there is considerable complaint among corporation managers, especially those of railroads, over the falling off in business and earnings compared with the record of a year ago, each week marks some step in the recovery from the recent financial crisis. During the past month or six weeks the chief tokens of advancement have been the announcements of the ready sale of new securities by municipalities or corporations. Several months ago it was pointed out in *THE WORLD TO-DAY* that the salvation of the country lay largely in its ability to amass new wealth if it were given a short respite from excessive activity. That accumulation already has taken place to a marked degree, with the result that the cities, counties, railroads and other corporations are able to finance themselves advantageously, whereas last year they were handicapped by "tight" money. This new financing, while not inordinately heavy, still is common to nearly every section of the country in some degree; and it comes as the result of an increasing demand for investments on the part of the rank and file of the country's individual investors and financial institutions. While the money is thus placed at the service of those who manage big enterprises and soon must work to revive business in many lines, this investment demand in turn indicates not only the stability of the country's enterprises but the faith of the nation in itself. The individual investor who heretofore has lacked the courage of his convictions should now take heart when he has the company of so many others and should begin to consider the matter of safeguarding his savings.

QUERIES AND ANSWERS

R. T., Chicago.—"What is the difference between stocks and bonds? In the matter of security which is the better of the two?"

Your inquiry suggests the rather common assumption that there is some resemblance between the two. In fact they have little in common except in that each is supposed to carry an income. Briefly, a bond is a token of a loan. A well-secured bond, say of a municipality or a first mortgage lien on the property of a corporation, presupposes the repayment of the loan at a given time, with interest at a specified rate meanwhile. Upon default of either principal or interest the bondholder has recourse to recover the amount of his loan by process against the borrower. If the bonds are properly secured there should be little or no difficulty in recovering principal and interest without loss. On the other hand, stocks are simply certificates representing ownership of a certain share in a business. When one purchases stock one shares alike either the profits or the losses of the business in question. Whereas the return of principal and interest of a bond depends eventually upon the value of the property securing the bond. Profitable income on a stock investment depends chiefly on business management of the stock company. In other words, one might invest in the stock of a company and never receive any income from his investment, while the bondholders of the same company might receive interest regularly and in due course the principal at the maturity of the loan. Thus, there are cases where the bonds of a company are fairly safe investments and yet the investment in the company's stock would prove unprofitable. Unless one is of the management of a stock company, it can be taken as a general rule of prac-

tice in investments to restrict purchases of stocks to such corporations as have a good record of earnings and successful management over a great enough period to assure stability of income to the investor.

Franz K., St. Louis.—"What would you advise in regard to the security of industrial stocks and bonds?"

While we do not wish to take a decided position against investments in the stocks or bonds of industrial corporations, we believe small investors, for the most part, can not afford to risk their savings in these enterprises. Doubtless great strides have been made in the last few years in perfecting the organization and management of the great trusts, but a casual survey of the current reports of almost any of the great "industrials" will reveal sharp fluctuations in earnings. In the degree that earnings fluctuate is there risk. And the one great lesson in investments which the savings class of America needs to learn is safety of principal with moderate income, rather than great hazard even with prospects of great profits.

H. W., Tehama, Cal.—"Where can I obtain a list of the Commercial Liability Failures of the United States for say five years back?"

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FOR THE HOME

TYPES OF ARCHITECTURE— THE COLONIAL STYLE

By GEORGE EMIL BERTRAND

ARCHITECT

THE architecture of a period is a concrete expression of the moral and intellectual attitude, the political and religious sentiment of that time. It is a mold, as it were, in which may be recast the social customs and the private and public life of a past generation. The manner of speech, of salutation, of gesture, the carriage, the style of dress, the character of amusements, the social relations, religious observances, the cast of countenance, are all manifestations which spring from the same inward impulses as the style of architecture of a given period.

It would be impossible to imagine Washington or Jefferson or Adams with their measured language, dignified manner and simple habits, living contentedly in one of the crazy, begabed so-called Queen Anne houses of thirty years ago. Their classic souls would have revolted. They must have surroundings in harmony with their aspirations. That indescribable affinity of form and color and sound with sentiment must ever be present with finely organized minds. And accordingly, as the elevating impulses of a people are blunted and nerveless, their art will be incongruous and insipid.

Perhaps there is no better criterion of the architecture of a period than a just estimate of the general excellence in all phases of the life of that time; that is to say, the beauty and decorum of social customs, sweetness and simplicity of domestic

relations, purity of motives and ambitions in politics. All of these sentiments will be reflected in the tone and color of their environment. What man with the least delicacy of sentiment would not be shocked at seeing "H. W. Longfellow" blazoned in gilded letters over the doorway of the old mansion in Cambridge.

If, as a careful study of the history of all art in all times seems to prove, the handiwork of a people is in harmony and in sympathy with its moral and intellectual impulses, then it must be admitted that the architecture of the first years of the republic is the noblest sentiment which our country has produced.

It would have been inconsistent that the signers of the Declaration of Independence should not have drawn their inspiration from the purest springs of social and moral philosophy, in their promulgation of the most humane and unselfish theory of government that history has yet recorded: and that their environment, the houses they lived in, and all accessories of their every-day existence, should not have been stamped with the same simple, lofty and refined sentiment.

The moral and intellectual history of a period can not be separated from the history of its art. All revivals of art in all countries have been accompanied with corresponding revivals in other domains of thought. A man's house, like his physiognomy, if he have any depth and force of character, will be the immediate reflection of his fine or dull sense of color, of grace.

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THE WORLD TO-DAY—FOR THE HOME

perfection of either. Their heroes in marble are easily gods by the simple yet marvelous effect of a pose or a gesture. They are naturally and unconsciously puissant. The simplest and most natural methods were employed in the construction of the Greek temple, yet they represent the most subtle principles in composition. Colonial architecture might properly be called the Puritan renaissance of the classical feeling divested of its physical element, in the same measure that the religion of the Puritans was less physical than that of the classic pagans.

To the zealous student of architecture his creation is not the final end of architecture. It is to him what eloquence is to the orator, what sound is to the musician, what color is to the painter. It is a medium, a mode of expression through which he transmits his feeling. His vocabulary consists of lights and shadows, solids and voids. But his education and traditions are the same as those of his fellows, he merely speaks in another medium so that the idea he expresses is that of the community in which he lives. It is no mere coincidence that the direction of national thought should be expressed in its architecture.

With the gradual revival of physical culture, which is at present noticeable in this country, will come a style of architecture founded on the same lofty ideals of beauty. A vigorous age in brawn and brains usually culminates in a vigorous age of architecture. The age Pericles is the proudest proof of this fact. The highest attainment of intellectual perfection must ever be attended with physical perfection. It is safe to suppose that the great architects and sculptors and philosophers of Greece were not dyspeptics.

As indicated by the tendency of the best men of the day, the coming style will be classical in sentiment. A return to classical forms indicates a finer balancing of the physical and intellectual forces in the nation. The coming architecture will be simple, dignified and erect, because the age will be sane, strong and cool nerved and free from the feverish, restlessness peculiar to unhealthy bodies. It will not be a servile copy of any preceding style, because nature produces no exact duplicates, but it will be classical in spirit because it will be an interpretation of the same ideals as those of the colonies.



It must be

HAND SAPOLIO

If Suki-San is to have an
"honorable bath"

*"Ti
li
ek"*



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